DUE DATE

Ca

Acc. No. ______________

La
R

...for first 15 days.

...days of the due date.

Bihar District Gaz   :eers

MUZAFFARPUR

By

P. C. ROY CHAUDHURY, M.A., B.L.,
Special Officer, Gazetteer Revision Section,
Revenue Department, Bihar, Patna.

PRINTED BY THE SUPERINTENDENT
SECRE \RIAT PRESS, BIHAR, PATNA
1958.

[*Price—Rupees Ten only.*]

PREFACE

The last District Gazetteer of Muzaffarpur by Mr. L. S. S. O'Malley, I.C.S., was published in 1907. At that time Muzaffarpur district formed a part of the Province of Bengal.

The Preface of Mr. O'Malley's book (168 pages) was as follows :—

> " When the Statistical Account of Bengal, by Sir W. W. Hunter, was published, the district of Muzaffarpur had only recently been constituted, and it was treated as part of the district of Tirhut, in which it was comprised until 1875. The present volume is, therefore, the first Gazetteer in which Muzaffarpur has been treated as a separate district.
>
> I desire to acknowledge the very great assistance I have derived in compiling this volume from the Muzaffarpur Survey and Settlement Report by Mr. C. J. Stevenson Moore, I.C.S., an exhaustive review of the economic conditions of the district, my obligations to which will abundantly appear in the various Chapters of the Gazetteer. "

Mr. O'Malley's book had 15 Chapters as follows :—

> Physical Aspects; History; The People; Public Health; Agriculture; Natural Calamities; Rents, Wages and Prices; Occupations, Manufactures and Trade; The Indigo; Means of Communication; Land Revenue Administration; General Administration; Local Self-Government; Education and Gazetteer.

Some detailed Statistics were published in a separate brochure.

When the last District Gazetteer of Muzaffarpur had appeared in 1907, one of a series compiled by O'Malley, Bihar was part of Bengal. Much water has flowed down the Ganga and Gandak since. In 1912 a new Province called " Bihar

and Orissa " was carved out from the old Bengal Presidency. In 1936 the Province of Bihar was separated from Orissa on the basis of race, language, economic interest and geographical position.

The district of Muzaffarpur was a part of the Division of Patna when the last Gazetteer was published. It may be mentioned here that Muzaffarpur or Tirhut district comprising of the districts of Muzaffarpur and Darbhanga formed a part of Bhagalpur Division till 1856. After the Santhal Revolt in 1855 when the district of Santhal Parganas was carved out, Tirhut district was placed under the Patna Division as a matter of administrative convenience. In 1875 Darbhanga was separated and was given the status of a district. Administrative exigency again brought about the division of Patna Commissionership.

From the original documents preserved in the National Archives, New Delhi, it appears that Lord Morley gave his sanction to the division of Patna Commissionership into two Commissioners' charges in his letter no. 65, dated the 15th May, 1908, issued from India Office, London. The move for the partition was made by the Governor-General of India in Council in their no. 348, dated Simla, the 5th September, 1907, after measuring public opinion. One of the reasons for making the administrative change was the prevalence of famine conditions in part of the Patna Division. Sir Andrews Fraser, the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal, felt strongly about the necessity of the division of the existing Patna Division into two Commissioners' charges as a matter of urgent administrative expediency.

Before this step was taken, for several years an Additional Commissioner had been employed to assist the Commissioner. In Resolution no. 202-Appointment, dated Calcutta, the 10th January, 1908, the proposal for splitting the Patna Commissionership was circularised. Criticisms and suggestions were invited and after duly considering them the Government decided that the districts of Patna, Gaya and Shahabad south of the river Ganges (Ganga) be known as Patna Division with headquarters at Patna and the districts of Saran, Champaran, Muzaffarpur and Darbhanga on the north of the river Ganges be known as Tirhut Division with headquarters at Muzaffarpur. There was some controversy as to the name of the new Division. Sir Andrews Fraser

proposed the name of Muzaffarpur Division. But the Government accepted the suggestion of Mr. Ridgley, Secretary to the Government of India, Home Department, that the name of the new Division should be Tirhut Division

In the last 50 years there have been such fundamental changes in almost every aspect of life that it was not considered proper to merely revise the old Gazetteer and the present book is a completely re-written volume. O'Malley's Muzaffarpur Gazetteer shows his intimate knowledge of local details and deep scholarship. But the basic changes, discovery of new facts and the present set-up of a Welfare State indicated that there should be a re-written Gazetteer from a slightly different angle of vision. The plan of contents followed in the book does not basically differ from the plan followed by O'Malley. It was thought more advisable to print the Statistics as an appendix to the book and not separately.

A book like this could only be produced by the pooling of resources and personal observations. A mass of literature had to be looked into including crumbling old documents and books that have become very rare. My contact with the district of Muzaffarpur in my previous official capacity has been particularly useful. There have been no further Survey and Settlement Operations since Mr. O'Malley's time. Had there been such operations recently my task would have been easier.

The excellent source materials in the old English Correspondence Volumes of the 18th and 19th centuries in the Record Room of Muzaffarpur have been partially utilised for this work. The study of the Old Correspondence Volumes in Muzaffarpur Record Room is being followed by the publication of a separate write-up as 'Muzaffarpur Old Records'. That volume forms a sister volume to this Gazetteer and may be useful as a source material for the future research workers.

I am obliged to the collaborators, officials and non-officials, including the District Magistrates (Messrs. S. C. Roy, R. Hoda and V. Jha) and Dr. H. R. Ghoshal of L. S. College, Muzaffarpur. Under orders of Government Shri S. V. Sohoni, I.C.S., who was once Commissioner of Tirhut Division had looked into the drafts and helped me with some suggestions.

I am particularly grateful to Shri Mahesh Prasad Sinha who as Minister of Transport and Industries had always been helping me with his valuable guidance. Shri Laliteshwar Prasad Shahi, M.L.A. (now Deputy Minister of Industries) and Shri Dip Narain Singh, Minister for Power and Irrigation had also looked into the drafts and given me their suggestions.

My thanks are also due to Shri S. N. Chatterji and his staff of Secretariat Press, Gulzarbagh for their personal care in the printing of the texts and the photos and to Shri A. C. Sarkar, Deputy Director of Surveys for the printing of the maps.

PATNA :
The 29*th March*, 1958.

P. C. ROY CHAUDHURY.

PLAN OF CONTENTS.

CHAPTERS.	PAGES.
I—PHYSICAL ASPECTS	1—16
II—CLIMATE AND RAINFALL	17—30
III—DAILY LIFE	31—45
IV—ECONOMIC CONDITION OF THE PEOPLE	46—57
V—AGRICULTURE, LIVESTOCK AND IRRIGATION.	58—67
VI—OCCUPATION, MANUFACTURE AND TRADE.	68—78
VII—EDUCATION	79—91
VIII—SOCIAL WELFARE	92—95
IX—PUBLIC HEALTH	96—108
X—LOCAL SELF-GOVERNMENT ...	109—120
XI—COMMUNICATION	121—141
XII—HISTORY	142—165
XIII—NATURAL CALAMITIES	166—184
XIV—LAND REVENUE ADMINISTRATION ...	185—199
XV—GENERAL ADMINISTRATION ...	200—220
XVI—DIRECTORY	221—243
ENCLOSURE I	244—252
ENCLOSURE II	252—262
ENCLOSURE III	263—273
APPENDIX—STATISTICS ...	275—294
GLOSSARY	295—301
INDEX	i—vii
PLATES	1—7
MAPS	1—4

TABLE OF CONTENTS.

CHAPTER I.

PHYSICAL ASPECTS.

PAGES.

GENERAL DESCRIPTION—BOUNDARY—ORIGIN OF NAME—GENERAL CONFIGURATION—NATURAL DIVISIONS—RIVER SYSTEM—The Ganga—The Great Gandak—The Baghmati—Tributaries of the Baghmati—The Little Gandak—The Baya—GEOLOGY—EARTHQUAKE—VEGETATION—Vegetation Zones—THE INTERESTING PLANTS OF THE DISTRICT—FAUNA—AVIFAUNA—The Ducks—FISH—REPTILES ... ... 1—16

CHAPTER II.

CLIMATE AND RAINFALL.

CLIMATE—RAINFALL—Temperature— Humidity—SURFACE WINDS—STATISTICS : Rainfall, Temperature, Cloud ... 17—30

CHAPTER III.

DAILY LIFE.

RECENT TRENDS—URBAN AND RURAL—FESTIVALS—Ram Navami—Vivah Panchami—MELAS AND FAIRS—DAILY LIFE—FOOD—ENTERTAINMENTS—INFLUENCE OF COURTS—LADIES—TOILET—DRESS, ETC.—SALUTATION—EATING PLACES—COMMON FOODSTUFF AND COOKING—TEA AND SMOKING—HOBBIES—PASTORAL SONGS—FOLK LITERATURE AND SONGS—WITCHCRAFT—SNAKE WORSHIP—TREE WORSHIP—HOUSING AND HOUSEHOLD—ORNAMENTS—MIDDLE CLASS—THE BAR—THE PLANTERS—THE ZAMINDARS ... ... 31—45

CHAPTER IV.

ECONOMIC CONDITION OF THE PEOPLE.

INTRODUCTION—AREA—LAND TENURE—TENURES—CESS AND RENT—CROPS—CONDITION OF CULTIVATION—LARGE FARMS—PLANTERS—POPULATION—INDUSTRIES AND LABOUR—FACTORIES—AGRARIAN POLICY—ABOLITION OF ZAMINDARY—AGRICULTURAL INCOME ... 46—57

CHAPTER V.

AGRICULTURE, LIVESTOCK AND IRRIGATION.

NATURAL CONFIGURATION— SOIL —RAINFALL— AGRICULTURAL STATISTICS—PRINCIPAL CROPS—FOOD CROPS—Rice—Transplantation and Broadcasting—OTHER

PAGES.

FOOD-GRAINS —Barley —Maize —Marua —Wheat—Gram—NON-FOOD CROPS —Sugarcane—Oil-seeds—Tobacco—Other Crops—EXTENSION OF CULTIVATION—IMPROVED METHODS OF CULTIVATION—LIVESTOCK—FODDER —CATTLE FAIRS —DISEASES —VETERINARY AID—BREEDING —GOSHALAS—IRRIGATION —METHODS OF IRRIGATION ... ... 58—67

CHAPTER VI.

OCCUPATION, MANUFACTURE AND TRADE.

AGRICULTURAL LABOUR—INDIGO AND SALTPETRE—SUGAR FACTORIES—RECENT INDUSTRIALIZATION—AUTOMOBILE REPAIRING WORKSHOPS—HOSIERY MILLS—RICE, OIL AND DAL MILLS—OTHER MISCELLANEOUS FACTORIES—OTHER OCCUPATIONS—HORTICULTURE—COMMUNICATION—MELAS—WEIGHTS AND MEASURES ... 68—78

CHAPTER VII.

EDUCATION.

PROGRESS OF EDUCATION—ORGANISATION AND ADMINISTRATION—COLLEGIATE EDUCATION—SECONDARY EDUCATION—MIDDLE SCHOOLS—PRIMARY EDUCATION—TECHNICAL EDUCATION—SPECIAL SCHOOLS—BASIC EDUCATION—SOCIAL EDUCATION CENTRES—LIBRARIES—EDUCATION OF THE BACKWARD COMMUNITIES—YOUTH WELFARE ACTIVITIES—JAIN PRAKRIT RESEARCH INSTITUTE ... ... 79—91

CHAPTER VIII.

SOCIAL WELFARE.

CO-OPERATIVE INSTITUTIONS—CO-OPERATIVE HEALTH ASSOCIATION—THE COLLEGE OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION—SRI RAM KRISHNA VIVEKANANDA SEVASRAM—THE MAHILA SHILPA KALA BHAWAN—THE DISTRICT SOLDIERS, SAILORS AND AIRMEN'S BOARD—HOME FOR THE HOMELESS—MUZAFFARPUR CLUB—The ORIENT CLUB—THE TOWN CLUB—SUHRID SANGH—THE ROTARY CLUB—HARI SABHA—KALI BARI ... .. 92—95

CHAPTER IX.

PUBLIC HEALTH.

NUTRITION—VITAL STATISTICS—PRINCIPAL DISEASES—Fever—Malaria—Plague—Cholera—Small-pox—Other fevers—Kala-azar—Other Diseases—SANITATION IN THE

PAGES.

TOWNS—ADMINISTRATION AND MEDICAL RELIEF—MATERNITY AND CHILD WELFARE CENTRE—PUBLIC HEALTH ORGANISATION—MEDICAL PERSONNEL—MEDICAL STATISTICS ... ... 96—108

CHAPTER X.

LOCAL SELF-GOVERNMENT.

DISTRICT BOARD—LOCAL BOARDS—GRAM PANCHAYAT—MUZAFFARPUR MUNICIPALITY—HAJIPUR MUNICIPALITY — LALGUNJ MUNICIPALITY -- SITAMARHI MUNICIPALITY—DUMRA NOTIFIED AREA COMMITTEE, SITAMARHI—STATISTICS ... ... 109—120

CHAPTER XI.

COMMUNICATION.

COMMUNICATION IN THE EARLY YEARS OF BRITISH ADMINISTRATION—ROAD CESS COMMITTEE—O'MALLEY'S DESCRIPTION OF THE ROADS, 1907—ROADWAYS NOW—NATIONAL HIGHWAY—PUBLIC WORKS DEPARTMENT ROADS—EARTHQUAKE—DIFFICULTIES IN ROAD MAINTENANCE—BRIDGES AND CULVERTS UNDER THE DISTRICT BOARD—PRINCIPAL ROADS—ARBORICULTURE—ROAD FINANCES—VEHICULAR TRAFFIC—WATER TRANSPORT—LOCAL FERRIES—BRIDGES—REST HOUSES—RAILWAYS—AVIATION—MOTOR TRANSPORT SERVICE—POSTS, TELEGRAPHS, TELEPHONES AND WIRELESS 121—141

CHAPTER XII.

HISTORY.

REPUBLIC OF VAISALI—VAISALI IN JAIN AND BUDDHIST LITERATURE—ANNEXATION OF VAISALI TO MAGADHA—VAISALI DURING MAURYA AND SUBSEQUENT TIMES—UNDER PALA AND SENA DYNASTIES—MUSLIM INVASION—SUGAONA DYNASTY—MUSLIM INFLUENCE—MUGHAL PERIOD—EARLY BRITISH PERIOD—TRADE WITH NEPAL—NEPALESE INCURSIONS—EXTENSION OF PERMANENT SETTLEMENT—MOVEMENT OF 1857-58—INDIGO MANUFACTURE—ADMINISTRATION REPORT OF 1876-77—CRIMES AND JUSTICE—BOMB CASE OF 1908—POLITICAL MOVEMENTS—EARTHQUAKE OF 1934—ARCHAEOLOGICAL REMAINS—ASOKA PILLAR AT KOLHUA—STUPA-MOUND AT KOLHUA—BASARH MOUND—A SECOND MOUND ... 142—165

CHAPTER XIII.

NATURAL CALAMITIES.

PAGES.

FLOODS—CAUSES—EARLY FLOODS IN 1785—1952—FLOOD IN 1953—EMBANKMENTS—FLOOD CONTROL SCHEMES—RIVER TRAINING SCHEME—FAMINE AND SCARCITY—PROTECTIVE SCHEMES—Gandak Project—EARTHQUAKE OF 1934 ... ... 166—184

CHAPTER XIV.

LAND REVENUE ADMINISTRATION.

EARLY HISTORY—EARLY COLLECTORS of TIRHUT—DECENNIAL AND PERMANENT SETTLEMENTS—NINETEENTH CENTURY REVENUE HISTORY—PARTITION OF ESTATES—RATE OF REVENUE—REVENUE SURVEYS—PRIVATE LAND OF PROPRIETORS—DIFFERENT CLASSES OF RAIYATS—SIZE OF ESTATES—TENURES AND UNDER-TENURES—CONDITION OF THE TENANTRY—TWENTIETH CENTURY REVENUE HISTORY—AGRARIAN LAWS—RENT REDUCTION—LAND REFORMS ACT, 1950—ABOLITION OF ZAMINDARI—DEVELOPMENT WORK ... ... 185—199

CHAPTER XV.

GENERAL ADMINISTRATION.

ADMINISTRATIVE CHANGES—SET UP IN 1907—PRESENT SET UP—POLICE—GRAM PANCHAYAT—HOME GUARDS—JAIL—CIVIL JUSTICE—CRIMINAL JUSTICE—INCOME-TAX—COMMERCIAL TAXES—REGISTRATION—EXCISE—CENTRAL EXCISE—LAND REFORMS SECTION—MISCELLANEOUS DEPARTMENTS ... ... 200—220

CHAPTER XVI.

DIRECTORY.

Ambara Chauk—Bairagnia—Baruraj—Batesar Asthan—Bela—Bela Muchpakauni—Belsand—Chak Ramdas—Charaut—Deokali—Goraul—Hajipur subdivision—Hajipur town—Sonepur fair at Hajipur—Hazrat Jandaha— Jaintpur—Juridih—Kanti—Katra— Khudiram Bose Memorial—Kolhua—Konharaghat—Lalganj—Mahnar Bazar—Matala—Motipur—Muzaffarpur town—Nanpur—Palmaul—Parihar—Parsauni— Patepur Asthan—Rajpara—Sadar subdivision—Sahebganj—Sarkhandi Bhita—Shakra—Sitamarhi subdivision—Sitamarhi town—Subhegarh—Tirhut—Turki—Vaisali—MELAS ... ... 221—243

ENCLOSURE I.

RENTS, WAGES AND PRICES.

PAGES.

PRODUCE RENTS—BATAI SYSTEM—BHAOLI SYSTEM—MANKHAP SYSTEM—CASH RENTS—ENHANCEMENT OF RENTS—PAYMENT OF RENTS—WAGES—LABOUR SUPPLY—PRICES—FAMINE PRICES—MATERIAL CONDITION OF THE PEOPLE ... ... 244—252

ENCLOSURE II.

THE INDIGO INDUSTRY.

PROGRESS OF THE INDUSTRY—CULTIVATION—SOILS AND MANURES —MANUFACTURE —LANDED INTERESTS—SYSTEMS of CULTIVATION—INFLUENCE OF THE INDUSTRY—THE BIHAR PLANTERS' ASSOCIATION—FACTORIES ... 253—262

ENCLOSURE III.

THE PEOPLE.

GROWTH of POPULATION—CENSUS of 1901—GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS—MIGRATION—Towns and Villages—Sex—Language—Written character—Literature—RELIGIONS—PRINCIPAL CASTES—GROWTH OF POPULATION SINCE 1901—Urban population—Rural population—Emigration and Immigration—Density—Sex and Civil Conditions, etc. ... ... 263—273

APPENDIX—STATISTICS ... ... 275—294

GLOSSARY ... ... 295—301

INDEX ... ... i—vii

PLATES ... ... 1—7

MAPS ... ... 1—4

LIST OF PLATES.

1. Figure of Lord Buddha at Kolhua.
2. Ashoka pillar at Kolhua.
3. Terracotta figures from Vaisali.
4. Ivory and Bone objects from Vaisali.
5. Beads and weights from Vaisali.
6. New Bridge on Burhi Gandak.
7. Shaojee's temple at Muzaffarpur.

LIST OF MAPS.

1. Population map.
2. Isoseismal map of Bihar Earthquake, 1934.
3. Embankments of the district.
4. Roads of the district.

E R R A T A.

Page 8, line 17—*for* ' Azella ' *read* ' Azolla '.

Page 38, line 4—*for* ' Snaks ' *read* ' Snacks '.

Page 41, line 16—*for* ' work ' *read* ' word '.

Page 45, line 12—*for* ' them ' *read* ' him '.

Page 79, line 37—*for* ' 1941—52 ' *read* ' 1941-42 '.

Page 91, line 17—*for* ' had ' *read* ' has '.

Page 95, line 44—*for* ' warshippers ' *read* ' worshippers '.

Page 164, line 25—*for* ' I.A.S.B., Vol. XI ' *read* ' J.A.S.B., Vol. XI '.

Page 183, line 18—*for* ' bumber ' *read* ' bumper '.

Page 248, line 3—*for* ' 1 th ' read $\frac{1}{60}$ th '.

Page 256, line 10—*for* ' Sumatrana ' *read* ' sumatrana '.

Page 262, line 14—*for* ' Munden ' *read* ' Minden '.

Page 283, line 2—*for* ' intoxicant ' *read* ' intoxicants '.

GAZETTEER OF THE MUZAFFARPUR DISTRICT

CHAPTER I.

PHYSICAL ASPECTS.

GENERAL DESCRIPTION.

The district of Muzaffarpur lies between 25°29′ and 26°53′ north latitude and between 84°53′ and 85°50′ east longitude. It has a total area of 3,035 square miles, i.e., 19,31,520 acres of land. It is 96 miles in length from north to south and 48 miles in breadth from east to west. Muzaffarpur town is the principal civil station of the district. It is situated in 26°7′ north latitude and 85°24′ east longitude.

BOUNDARY.

On the north the district is bounded by Nepal, on the east by the district of Darbhanga, on the south by the river Ganga, on the south-west by the district of Saran where the Great Gandak serves as a natural boundary and on the north-west it is bounded by the district of Champaran. The northern frontier between Indian territory and Nepal is demarcated by ditches and streams, besides masonry and wooden pillars.

ORIGIN OF NAME.

At first Muzaffarpur constituted a part of the district of Tirhut. Later on, in 1875, it was divided into two districts, the eastern portion formed into the district of Darbhanga and the western portion formed into a separate district of Muzaffarpur after the name of its chief town founded by Muzaffar Khan, a general of Akbar.

GENERAL CONFIGURATION.

Muzaffarpur district is a vast alluvial plain intersected by a number of streams which flow mostly in south-easterly direction. The ground is not marked by any high contour and at many places there are chains of shallow marshes which serve the purpose of drainage for excessive water due to rainfall and overflow of the streams. The rivers flow through raised beds formed out of the silt brought down by rivers from the mountains of Nepal. The alluvial plain is a tract of great fertility.

NATURAL DIVISIONS.

The district is divided into three distinct tracts by the Baghmati and the Burhi Gandak rivers. The first tract which lies on the south of the Little or Burhi Gandak is bounded on the west and the south by the Great Gandak and the Ganga and covers the whole of Hajipur subdivision and a large part of the headquarters subdivision. This is the richest, most fertile and productive tract of the district consisting of a large block of upland with slight depressions here and there, especially towards the south-east, where there are small *chaurs* (water-logged low areas) the largest of which is Tal Baraila. The second tract lies between the Burhi Gandak and the Baghmati and consists of low lying lands which frequently get inundated. The famous Turki embankment has been constructed here to protect the area from inundation. This tract is the lowest tract in the district and due to the shifting courses of the rivers there are long semi-circular *chaurs* in all directions. The third tract lying north of the Baghmati and extending up to the border of Nepal covers nearly half of the district, including the whole of the Sitamarhi subdivision and stretches in a great marshy plain, traversed at intervals by ridges of upland from the Baghmati to the Nepal frontier.

RIVER SYSTEM.

Roughly speaking the slope of the country north of an imaginary line drawn from Belsand to Pupri in the Sitamarhi subdivision is from the north to the south and below that south-eastward. On the south the great stream of the Ganga rolls on to the sea, on the south-west the Great Gandak forms a natural boundary and on the north the district is intersected by a series of streams running diagonally across it from the north-west to the south-east and connecting with the great boundary rivers. The most important of these are the Baghmati, the Burhi Gandak, its tributary the Lakhandai and the Baya. The most marked characteristic of the river system is that the rivers flow on ridges elevated above the surrounding country, and each pair of rivers thus encloses a shallow depression, leading into one another. These low lands are first filled by the local rainfall, when the excess water passes off from one into another until its flow is checked by some high ground. Having no other course to take, it breaks into one of the nearest rivers at a point where the banks are low, after the level of the stream has somewhat subsided: and in this way the rivers, although running upon comparatively high ground, become ultimately the receptacles of the drainage of the country.

The Ganga.

The Ganga forms the southern boundary of the district for about 20 miles from Sikmanpur, near Hajipur, where the main stream is joined by the Great Gandak. to a point almost due north of the Bakhtiarpur station on the Eastern Railway. Its channel, when

clear of sand-banks, is generally about a mile wide. In the rains, however, the river swells up and its breadth is much greater, and larger expanses of sand, which lie on either side of the bank at other seasons are then covered with water. The sand-banks are regularly changing, forming and re-forming in apparently a most capricious manner. The Ganga receives the Great Gandak a little below Hajipur but the confluence of the two rivers is according to local belief supposed to take place just opposite that place. When the Ganga rises in flood, it not only spills over the country near its banks but also presses back the water of the Great Gandak and floods the land between the Gandak embankment for miles above.

The Great Gandak.

The Great Gandak, which joins the main stream of the Ganga, opposite Patna, is also locally known as the Narayani and Saligrami*; it has been identified with the Kondochates of the ancient Greek geographers, and according to Lassen, it is Sadanira of the Epics. Rising in the central mountain basin of Nepal, where its sources are known as the Sapt Gandaki, it first touches the district near Karnaul in the headquarters subdivision, and then pursues a winding course in a south-easterly direction, as far as Hajipur, where it falls into the Ganga, after a course of 192 miles. Beginning as a snow-fed torrent, the Gandak, soon after its entry into Indian territory, acquires the character of a deltaic river. It has no tributaries in this portion of its course; in fact, the drainage sets not towards it but away from it. Its banks are appreciably higher than the surrounding country. In order to safeguard against inundation, two series of embankments have been constructed—one, which is the more effective, on the Saran side, the other along the Muzaffarpur bank, as far as Hajipur. The latter has been repeatedly overtopped and breached by floods, and enormous tracts of land have been submerged. In addition to the dangers caused by the rapid current, numerous snags are found; and near Harauli, midway between Hajipur and Lalganj, there is a large bed of *Kankar*, which extends across the river, and so narrows the channel that boats can only proceed with the utmost caution. The lowest discharge of water into the Ganga towards the end of March is 10,391 cusecs and the highest recorded flood volume is 2,66,000 cusecs.

The Baghmati.

The Baghmati, rising in Nepal, near Kathmandu, enters Muzaffarpur district two miles north of Dheng station on the North-Eastern Railway and 17 miles north-west of Sitamarhi. After its junction with the Lal Bakaya, it forms the western boundary of the

**Shaligrams* are small stones used for worship by the Hindus. They are sometimes found in rivers Pachnad and Sona which fall in the Gandak near Tribeni Ghat.

district flowing in a more or less irregular southerly course for some 30 miles, and then strikes off near Narwa in a south-easterly direction across the district. After the river has turned to the south-east, it flows almost parallel to the Burhi Gandak, crossing the Darbhanga-Muzaffarpur road at Gaighat, and leaves the district near Hathwa, 20 miles east of Muzaffarpur: it ultimately joins the Burhi Gandak above Rusera in the Darbhanga district. The Baghmati, being a hill-stream, rises so quickly after heavy rain that its banks are unable to contain the water; and as it runs upon a ridge, it sometimes causes great damage when the bank is overtopped. A portion of the country north of Muzaffarpur is, however, protected by the Turki embankment. Both this river and the Burhi Gandak are apt to change their courses. In the dry season the Baghmati is fordable and at places is not more than knee-deep. In the rains, however, the current is very swift, sometimes running seven miles an hour in the upper reaches and there are many snags which render navigation dangerous. A former bed, known as the old Baghmati, is still pointed out, extending from Mallai, on the frontier, to Belanpurghat, about 3½ miles north-east of Kalyaghat, where it joins the present deep stream. This bed has steep banks and is about 50 yards wide. It carries a good deal of water in the rains when it occasionally overflows. But in the cold weather it is only about two feet deep.

Tributaries of the Baghmati.

The Baghmati has a number of tributaries, of which the most important are the Lal Bakaya, the Bhurengi, the Lakhandai, and the Adhwara or Little Baghmati. The first tributary is the Lal Bakaya, which flows in a southern direction and joins the main stream near Adauri. The next affluent is the Bhurengi, which leaves the main stream near Maniari and rejoins it near Belanpur. Another tributary is the Lakhandai which rises in Nepal. Lakhandai enters Muzaffarpur district at Itharwa, eighteen miles north of Sitamarhi. It is at first a small stream, but after being joined by the Sauran and Basiad, it becomes a large navigable river. Flowing south, it passes through Sitamarhi, where it is spanned by a fine bridge. Continuing in a south-easterly direction it skirts the old now defunct indigo factories of Dumra, Runi Saiyadpur, Ourai and Tehwara and joins the Baghmati seven or eight miles south of the Darbhanga-Muzaffarpur road. The river rises and falls quickly. Its current is rapid especially in the higher reaches which renders it dangerous for navigation. The next tributary is the Adhwara or the Little Baghmati, which flows southwards from Nepal some eight miles east from Sitamarhi. With the Puranadhar Baghmati, the old bed of the Baghmati mentioned above, which flows eight miles to the west of Sitamarhi, it is invaluable for irrigation in years of drought. During such periods numerous dams are thrown across each stream. Like its parent river, it has several tributary streams. The main stream of the Kamala joins it near Kamtaul; above that place, near

Pali, a branch goes off towards the west, losing itself in a *chaur* near Rasulpur; and above Pali, the Dhaus joins it from the east and the Jhim from the west. The Dhaus again is formed by the union of the Bigi and the Bilaunti; the former flowing from the west, the latter from the east. The Little Baghmati, after receiving these tributaries, falls into the Baghmati at Haia Ghat, about eight miles south of Darbhanga.

The Little Gandak.

The Little Gandak, which is also known as the Harha, Sikrahna or Burhi Gandak rises in Champaran in a *chaur* in P.-S. Bagaha. It enters the district near the village of Ghosewat in the headquarters subdivision, and flows along a very tortuous course towards Muzaffarpur, twenty miles to the south-east. Muzaffarpur stands on its southern bank. After leaving it, the river still pursues a winding course to the south-east almost parallel to the Baghmati, and passing into the Darbhanga district near Pusa, twenty miles south-east of Muzaffarpur, it ultimately falls into the Ganga opposite Monghyr. In the hot weather it is fordable at several places, and its banks are high or low according to the sweep of the current. For purposes of navigation, the Burhi Gandak is an extremely valuable river. During the rains boats of 1,000 maunds burden can easily reach Muzaffarpur. The opening of the North-Eastern Railway, which crosses it at Nagarbasti, has considerably diminished its importance as a trade route. The Burhi Gandak, like the Baghmati, is very liable to shift its course and old beds which the stream has now deserted are extremely common, especially from near Muzaffarpur to Motipur.

The Baya.

The Baya is a spill channel of the Great Gandak. It issues near Sahibganj, thirty-four miles north-west of Muzaffarpur. It enters this district near Karnaul and flowing in a south-easterly direction through it, becomes an important drainage channel with a catchment basin of 800 square miles. In Muzaffarpur district it passes Deoria, Karnaul, Sariya, Bhatulia, Karhari and Chitwara, and leaving the district at Bajitpur, thirty miles south of Muzaffarpur, ultimately empties itself into the Ganga. The head of the stream is apt to silt up. The Baya is largely fed by drainage from *chaurs*, and attains its greatest flood height when the Gandak and the Ganga are both in flood.

GEOLOGY.

The district is a vast alluvial country wherein two types of alluvium are to be found, the older alluvium and the newer alluvium. The older alluvium, which is yellow and often rich in *kankar*, is met with in the north of the district. In the south newer alluvium, darker in colour, consisting of sands, salts and clay, devoid of *kankar* occurs. During the flood season, the rivers that flow southwards

and south-eastwards tend to re-distribute the alluvium, while spreading far beyond their banks with their load of sediment brought from the submontane tracts in the north. The great thickness of alluvium conceals all the ancient crystalline rocks below.

In the north of the district *kankar* may be used for burning lime and also as road metal.

Sodium sulphate is extracted from the *reh*, a saline efflorescence on the surface of the soil, and during the period between 1908 and 1923 the production of *khari* (sodium sulphate) amounted to 1,29,203 tons.

Saltpetre or potassium nitrate is also extracted from the efflorescences in the district.

EARTHQUAKE.

During the earthquake of 1934, Sitamarhi town lay in the epicentral tract which extended east-south-eastwards through Madhubani in the Darbhanga district. Within this area there was a general subsidence of the ground, giving rise to widespread fissuring and to destruction of buildings by tilting and break up of the foundations. A very large number of houses were completely damaged. The emission of sand through fissures was maximum in this area. In the lowlands, sand and water vents and crater-like depressions appeared at a large number of places.

The area to the south lay in the influence of the isoseismal IX of the Mercalli Scale of intensities of earthquake shock. Muzaffarpur town was included in this zone and the effects of the earthquake were disastrous. There was complete or nearly complete ruin of many houses and serious cracks in many others, rendering them uninhabitable. Extensive fissuring and sanding were also observed in the area.

Further south in the district, the earthquake led to the partial ruin of some houses and frequent and considerable cracks in others. Fissures occurred in the alluvium; and there was moderate degree of sanding.

This earthquake was explained by a tendency for elevation of the country north of a line passing through Sitamarhi east-south-eastwards and a tendency south of it for depression; and the relief sought from the strains set up along this line due to the contrasted movement.*

---

*REFERENCES :

The Economic Geology and Mineral Resources of Bihar Province by J. A. Dunn—Mem., G. S. I., Vol. 78, 1941.

The Bihar Nepal Earthquake, 1934, Mem., G. S. I., Vol. 73.

Report on Sodium Salts in U. P. with notes on occurrences in other parts of India by J. B. Auden, B. C. Gupta, P. C. Roy and M. Hossain, Rec. G. S. I., Vol. 77, Prof. paper no. 1.

VEGETATION.

For the purpose of describing the vegetation, the district may be divided into several zones, namely,—

(1) The rivers and their old channels.

(2) The Raghopur Diara in the Ganga.

(3) The area south of Burhi Gandak, and the *chaurs*.

(4) Tal Baraila.

(5) The Doab between the Burhi Gandak and the Baghmati; the " Mans ".

(6) The area north of Baghmati river.

(7) The lands along the roads and railways; the waste lands in the towns.

(8) The ponds and ditches in the towns and villages.

(1) *The Ganga, Gandak, Baghmati and Lakhandai.*

They are all perennial streams, the first three being fast-flowing rivers, hold very little vegetation in them. The Ganga has some sheltered pools here and there in winter, especially on the southern edge of the Raghopur Diara, in which are seen some algae, particularly *Chara* and *Nitella*. *Vallisnaria spiralis*, *Potamogeton pectinatus* and other angiosperms. The Lakhandai in its lower course has much of its water distributed into irrigation channels and becomes very narrow and slow-flowing; there it contains some aquatic plants.

The Burhi Gandak is shallow and slow-flowing but does not hold much vegetation except some spirogyra in deep pools here and there.

(2) *The Raghopur Diara.*

This is a huge island in the Ganga. Its banks are low and sloping towards the south and high and steep towards the north due to the cutting action of the water. The lower portions are covered with deep layers of sand and are either left uncultivated, or where the sand is not very deep, cultivated with various cucurbita. The higher portions having less of sand on the top, are fertile, and sown with wheat and barley in winter and maize, pigeon-pea, sugarcane, etc., in the rainy season; maize, of course, being planted on such lands that get inundated in August, before which period that crop has to be harvested. The undulating portions of the banks are planted with mustard and gram. Some portions of the land are under tobacco turmeric, chillies, etc.

Weeds are many particularly such as are brought every year by the Ganga from the west, such as *Eragrcstis spp.*, *Digitaria marginata*, *Eleusine aegyptica*, *Heleochloa schoenoides*, *Phalaris minor*,

Cyperus rotundus, *Kyllingia cylindrica*, *Vandellia brachiata*, *Oldenlandia corymbosa*, *Euphorbia hirta*, *E. thymifolia*, and occasional *Tamarix ericoides*, and *Equisetum spp.* Of these a few are useful species such as *Saccharum spontaneum* and *S. Munja* growing in moist places. They not only serve to harden the soil but also supply the much-needed thatching material.

(3) *The area south of the Burhi Gandak.*

In spite of the general level being high, due to ineffective drainage by the rivers and streams, many ditches and pools are formed during the rains and the soil becomes alkaline. There being great pressure of population on land, even the ditches are cultivated, with a variety of coarse paddy, the plants of which do not die on being submerged, but elongate as the water rises. Only areas too deep to be cultivable are left unutilized for cultivation. In them there grows up, particularly towards the end of the rains, a natural vegetation consisting of *Panicum proliferum*, *Leersia hexandra*, *Asteracantha longifolia*, *Azella*, etc. Some *spirogyras* are seen here and there especially nearer the banks.

The small bits of raised lands enclosed by the ditches are kept under grasses useful for thatching, the very alkaline lands under *moonj* (*Saccharum munja*) and others under *kans* (*S. spontaneum*).

All high lands are under cultivation. Those nearer Hajipur town have fruit-trees particularly mango, banana, litchi and guava. *Sissoo* (*Dalbergia sissoo*) and *surri* (*Hymenodiction excelsum*) are commonly planted on the boundary walls of the orchards. Lands to the north and east of Hajipur are under cultivation of the usual crops consisting of paddy on the low lands and sugarcane, pigeon-pea, maize, tobacco, castor, turmeric, chilli, *suthni* (*Vigna vexillata*), *misrikand* (*Pachyrrhizus angulatus*) and *sakarkand* (*Ipomea batatas*) on the higher lands. Some of the paddy lands and all the fields under maize have a rotation of winter crops like mustard, wheat and peas.

Lands to the south-west are generally alkaline and, therefore, the crops are poor. A few raised spots like the Jandaha township have good soil and bear good crops.

Lands strictly in the villages and around the houses where irrigation from wells and protection from cattle and goats are possible are given over to vegetables. Betel leaf plantations are frequently seen nearer towns. Weeds of cultivation include *Cannabis sativa*, *Anagallis arvenis*, *Androsace saxifragifolia*, *Hydrocotyl asitica* and others.

With the opening of the Baraila Tal canal in 1955 the drainage of this portion of the district is bound to improve: the *chaurs* will disappear and the alkaline lands will lose the excess salts so that the fertility of the soil will improve.

(4) *Tal Baraila.*

This is a big *chaur* several square miles in area, according to the local legend, 24 miles by 26 miles during the rainy season. Baraila village is located on the south-west of this on an elevated tract of land. The marginal parts of this *chaur* that are under shallow waters in the rains are planted with coarse paddy. This is followed in winter by wheat, mustard and gram. Where it is left uncultivated, there grow up *Hygrophila polysperma*, *Alternanthera sessilis*, *Ipomea reptans*, and other amphibious plants in winter.

The deeper portions of this *chaur* are full of aquatic plants, mostly the rooted submerged types like *Chara spp.*, *Hydrilla verticillata*, *Potamogeton crispum*, *P. indica*, *P. pectinata*, *Nias graminea*, *Lagarosiphon alternifolia*, and others. *Limnanthemum criststum* and *Nelumbium spp.* are two of the aquatic plants with immersed leaves. There are also a few floating grasses. The aquatic vegetation serves to feed the ducks and fowl which live here or migrate to this *chaur* in winter, as also to feed the fish.

(5) *The Doab between the Burhi Gandak and the Baghmati rivers.*

This area is very low lying, so much so that the Muzaffarpur-Sitamarhi road runs all along on an embankment. All cultivated land is given over to rice cultivation during the rains, coarse paddy in the low and partly submerged areas and finer varieties on higher lands. The paddy crop is followed in the winter by *ankari* (*Vicia sativa*), mustard, *bakula* (*Vicia faba*), linseed, pea, tobacco, and in the villages by vegetables.

On the wet banks is seen *Lippia geminata* and some amphibious grasses. On the low banks of rivers may be seen *Xanthium strumarium*, *Rumex spp.*, *Solanum migrum*, *Nicotiana plumbaginifolia*, *Amarantus spinosus*, and a few *babool* plants.

(6) *The lands to the north of the Baghmati river and extending up to the Nepal border.*

The depressed portions of land grow a coarse variety of paddy during the rains, followed by the usual winter crops. The higher lands grow either the better variety of paddy or maize. The still higher lands are given over to growing of pigeon-pea and sugarcane. On the embankments of the river is grown *parwal* (*Trichosanthes dioica*). The paddy and maize crops are followed by *bakula*, *masur* (*Lens esculentum*), pea, wheat, tobacco, mustard and linseed. Nearer the houses where protection and some irrigation are possible, are grown vegetables. The vegetable fields are fenced off by hedges of *jayant* (*sesbania ægyptica*), *arand* (*Ricinus communis*) and sometimes *Opuntia*. There are innumerable weeds of cultivation noticed, the chief being *Nepeta hindustana*, *Angallis arvensis*, *Cannabis sativa* and *Chenopodium murale*.

There are a few varieties of mango and bamboos which predominate. *Babool* grows spontaneously along the roadsides.

(7) *The lands along the roads, railways, in the railway yards and all waste lands in the towns.*

All such lands are full of weeds, particularly, the introduced ones. The bigger a town and the greater the means of communication with it, the larger the type and number of weeds in it. The weeds have spread even to the interior along the roads and railways. Some of the commonest ones are *Lantana camara, Chrozophora rottleri, Xanthium strumarium, Sida spp., Clerodendron infortunantum, Glycosmis pentaphylla, Cassia tora, Coccidentalis*, and *Csophera* and *Croton sparsiflorus. Hyptis suaveolens, Argemone mexicana, Zizyphus, babool*, date, *kans*, etc., also are seen along the roads.

(8) *The ponds and ditches in the towns and in villages.*

Those nearer houses receive a lot of organic refuse; therefore, they grow lots of *Azolla, Asteracantha, Ipomea reptans, etc.* Others that are clean are cultivated with *singhara (Trapa bishpinosa)*. Ditches where the water is deep but are frequently visited by buffaloes contain only a growth of *Ottelia alismoides*. Blue lotus and other kinds of lotus are common.

THE INTERESTING PLANTS OF THE DISTRICT.

Two important parasites. *Loranthus longiflorus* on mango and *sheesham*, and *Cuscuta reflexa* growing on various hedges, *babool*, etc., are very common in the district. The root parasite, *Orobanche* is plentiful on mustard and vegetable crops. Rusts on wheat and linseed are also common. They cause a great economic loss although they can be eradicated.

Land orchids, particularly *Zeuxine sulcate*, is very common in grass lands, mainly on the bunds of rice fields. *Scirpus grossus (kaseru)* is a cultivated sedge very common on Samastipur side. The three root crops, *misrikand, sakarkand* and *suthni* as also rhizome crops like turmeric and ginger are very common here due to the sandy soil.*
Bamboos of various types are common.

FAUNA

Tirhut was formerly famous for the number and variety of its fauna in the days when forests covered large stretches of land which

*LITERATURE CONSULTED :

Imperial Gazetteer, 1908—*Bengal—Muzaffarpur.*

Bihar and Orissa District Gazetteers—Muzaffarpur, 1917, Patna.

H. H. Haines : *The Botany of Bihar and Orissa*, London (1921—25).

P. C. Ghose : *North Bihar Flood* (1948), Patna.

H. N. Mukherji : *Soils of Bihar*, Proc. Bihar Acad. of Agricultural Sciences 1 (1) 58—94. (1952).

are now under the plough. "The buffaloes", wrote the author of the *Ain-i-Akbari*, "are so savage that they will attack a tiger. There are many lakes, and in one of them the water never decreases, and the depth is unfathomable. Groves of mango trees extend to a distance of 20 *kos*, delighting the eye. In the rainy season gazelle, deer and tiger frequent the cultivated spots, and are hunted by the inhabitants. The deer they surround with an enclosure, and take when they please." Even towards the close of 18th century wild animals were plentiful. A few years before the Permanent Settlement, rewards are on record for the slaughter of 51 tigers in a single year. There was much waste land to the north inhabited by the beasts of prey that cultivation had driven out out of the more southern tracts. The depredations of herds of wild elephants were a serious danger. The advance of cultivation, the growth of the population, and the extension of means of communication have now driven the wild animals, which formerly infested the district, back to the jungles of Nepal. There is no jungle left in the district sufficiently large and dense to afford shelter to the larger beasts of prey. Leopards are occasionally found in patches of jungle towards the north of the Sitamarhi subdivision, but they are only stray visitors from Nepal. The only other predatory animals met with are the fox and the jackal found in all parts of the district.

The only representatives of the Ungulata are the *nilgai* or blue-bull (*Boselaphus tragocamelus*) and wild pig (*Sis cristatus*), both of which are fairly common in the *diaras* and in the patches of grass and jungle still left. The wild pig is much scarcer than formerly. But whenever found, he is hunted: and though his kind has decreased in number, he retains the same qualities of cunning hardihood and courage which made pig-sticking once a fine sport among the European planters in North Bihar.

AVIFAUNA.

The common birds of Muzaffarpur are also the common birds of the other plains districts of Bihar. Muzaffarpur is the most central of the plains districts of Bihar.

As is common knowledge, there are two kinds of crows, namely the bigger and blacker jungle crow (*Corvus macrorhynchos*) and the smaller house crow (*Corvus splendens*) with much shiny grey on its necks. Both are intelligent birds and partial to human habitations. The house crow is the more intelligent of the two and more numerous in towns and villages, but there is hardly any place where the jungle crow is not found.

Closely related to the crows is the treepie (*Crypsirina vagabounda*). Its colouring is like the yolk of an egg, with white patches on the sides, and a long graduated black tail. The tail is edged with white and almost double the length of the main body. That gives the treepie the appearance of a large bird, though it is no bigger than a

myna. Few untrained observers can see any resemblance between the treepie and the crows to place them together in the same family, but a close look at the strong black bill and the shape of the black head does bring out the affinities. There is a remarkable similarity between the treepie and the house crow.

The common babbler (*Turdoides caudata*) is an earthy-brown bird, nine inches long, which chatters about noisily in flocks around villages and garden fences. Equally common as the babbler but more prominent because of its slight black crest, red-vent and white rump is the red-vented *Bulbul* (*Pycnonotus cafer*). No bird is, however, as striking as the *jhujenga* or black drongo (*Dicrurus macrocercus*) with its glossy black body and a deeply forked tail, sitting on telegraph posts and wires or sweeping about the country in rapid flights. It is the boldest bird of the plains and chases eagles thrice its size without any fear.

The white-bellied minivet (*Pericrocotus erythropygeus*) should have been equally prominent if it were not so shy. It is a brightly coloured bird, probably the most beautiful bird of the district, the male scarlet and the female brown. The head, neck, back and tail are black and the belly is white. The male's crimson breast shows off well against the white belly and black head, but the bird is generally seen only in villages where there are big mango orchards.

The common *myna* (*Strunus tristis*) is as ubiquitous as the house crow or the black drongo and is a noisy snuff-brown bird with white tips to its tail. The sexes are alike. One more variety is found generally in the *diara* areas and along rivers. It is grey and more often seen on the ground than elsewhere and is known as the bank *myna* (*Acridotheres gingianus*). The house sparrow (*Passer domesticus*), of course, is found everywhere.

The *papiha* (*Cuculus varius*) in whose shrill cry some hear a sound of the words 'brain fever' is a hawk-like cuckoo, brown and barred with black, but rarely seen. Less known is the Indian cuckoo (*Cuculus micropterus*). The cuckoos are more easily identified by their calls than by their looks.

Among the persistent noises of the countryside, that of the crimson-breasted barbet (*Megalaima haemocephala*) must be ranked along with the *papiha's*. The barbet is a beautiful small green bird with a crimson breast, yellow throat and crimson forehead. It goes on monotonously repeating " tonk, tonk, tonk " throughout the day, hunting for insects on trees or hammering with its strong beak holes through a branch.

Noisy, flashy and impressive is the roller or *nilkant* (*Coracias benghalensis*) flaunting its blue wing in acrobatics in the sky. Sitting on the ground, a telegraph wire or a tree the bird is hardly noticeable with its buff back which folds over the blue wings completely.

Darting about the sky and hawking insects on the wings are the bee-eaters, small green birds. The common green bee-eater (*Merops orientalis*) often spreads out its wings like a Japanese fan. The other blue-tailed bee-eater (*Merops phillipinus*) is slightly bigger and more blue in the tail. Both have protuberances from their tails and nest in holes in the ground.

The grass owl (*Tyto capensis*) is a largish (about 18 inches) bird, with a rich dark brown upper plumage, each feather tipped with a white spot, giving it a very mottled appearance over a white belly. The facial discs are pure white. Its call is similar to the screech of the barn owl.

The little brown dove (*Streptopelia senegallensis*) is the smallest of our doves and has a wide range of distribution, from the banks of the Kosi westward right up to Africa. It has slaty grey wings over an earthy brown body and has two bright chess-boards of red and black tiny squares on each side of the neck.

The peewit (*Venellus venellus*) is a winter visitor from northern countries and is a lapwing with a prominent narrow long crest curving backwards from its head.

The ducks.

The avifauna of Muzaffarpur and all other districts of the northern plains of Bihar is remarkable for the large number of winter visitors. In Muzaffarpur with its large *chaurs* and marshes like the Tal Baraila, the winter visiting ducks are important. An attempt will be made here to supply an easy key for the identification of ducks.

The ducks include all teal, goose, swans and mergansers. They have all webbed feet and straight flat bills with rows of teeth at either edge of the bill. The swans are the biggest of the ducks and have exceedingly long necks, geese come next in size and are distinguished by having the front edge of the nostrils about the middle of the beak. Their plumage is plain grey or brown with lighter edges, giving them a barred appearance and distinguishing them from the rather extravagantly coloured teals, true ducks and mergansers. The mergansers have narrow tapering bills and pied plumage. The true ducks do not have exceedingly long necks nor prominently tapering beaks. Teals are the smallest of the ducks.

No swans have been recorded from Muzaffarpur or any other district of Bihar. Among the geese the bar-headed (*Anser indicus*) is at once distinguished by its pale clear grey colour, almost a French grey and has two dark bars across its head, one from eye to eye and the other a little backwards on the nape. The grey-lag goose (*Anser anser*) is the commonest of our geese and has a bill over two and half

inches, without any black on it. The white-fronted goose (*Anser albifrons*) has a two-inch bill; also without any black. Sushkin's goose (*Anser neglectus*) is the biggest of our geese, 40 inches long, but is exceedingly rare and has been so far reported only from Darbhanga district. The dwarf or lesser white-fronted goose (*Anser erythropus*), 23 inches, is the darkest of all our geese and has a white patch on the forehead in the form of a longitudinal blaze or broad streak, running up from the bill to the level of a line drawn between the eyes.

The beaks of the mergansers are twice as broad at the root as at the tip. The birds are about the size of or smaller than a tame duck and are pied. Two mergansers are found in Bihar—the goosander (*Mergus merganser*) and the smew (*Mergus albellus*). The goosander is pied while the smew is strikingly all white. It has a short mane-like crest too.

True ducks can be subdivided into diving ducks. goose-like ducks and surface-feeding ducks. The diving ducks are at once marked off by their large feet, which have the outer toe as long as or even longer than the middle, and the hind toe with a deep lobe or flap, so as to be leaf-like in outline. The goose-like, or walking and perching, ducks have either a short bill or long shanks, or both, the bill being about the length of the shanks. The ordinary surface-feeding ducks have rather short shanks and moderate sized feet, with the outer toe shorter than the middle, and the bill longer than the shank.

The diving ducks are the red-crested pochard (*Netta rufina*), the dunbird (*Aythya ferina*), the white-eyed pochard (*Aythya nyroca*), the tufted pochard (*Aythya fuligula*) and the golden-eye (*Bucephala clangula*). The golden-eye is marked off at once by its forwardly placed nostrils, these being actually nearer to the tip of the bill than to the root. The male is mostly white, but the head is dark glossy green, with a white patch on each side at the base of the beak. The beak and the edge of the wings are black. The female is a dark grey where the male is black and has a dark brown head with no white on the face.

The red-crested pochard is the biggest of all pochards (about 20 inches), and has red or orange colouring on the bill and the feet. The male has a full soft bushy crest of a yellow-buff colour, the rest of the head being of a beautiful pinkishchestnut. The upper plumage is plain light brown with two white patches in front of the wings; the lower plumage is black. The female has less of a crest and is light brown above and dirty white below.

The tufted pochard has a pig tail-like tuft hanging down from its head. The white-eye has no crest. The dunbird is a very ungainly looking duck and has no white bar on the wing. It has a conspicuous tri-coloured plumage, the head being rich chestnut red, the breast, rump and stern black, and the body pale clear grey.

The goose-like or walking and perching ducks are the comb duck (*Sarkidiornia melanotus*), the cotton teal (*Nettapus coromandelianus*), the lesser whistling teal (*Dendrocygna javanica*), the large whistling teal (*Dendrocygna bicolor*), the sheldrake (*Tadorna tadorna*), the Brahminy duck (*Tadorna ferruginea*) and the wigeon (*Anas penelope*).

The sheldrake is distinguishable by its brilliant pied plumage of white, black and chestnut. The Brahminy duck has chestnut or buff plumage and black-and-white wings. The comb-duck has long dark wings and white belly and a knob on the beak of the male. The cotton teal is very small, smaller than a pigeon, and gives the effect of white-cotton floating on water.

The surface-feeding ducks are the white-winged wood duck (*Cairina scutulata*), the pink-headed duck (*Rhodonessa caryophyllacea*), the spotbill or grey duck (*Anas peecilorhyncha*), the mallard (*Anas platyrhyncha*), the gadwal (*Anas strepera*), the baikal or clucking teal (*Anas formosae*), the pintail (*Anas acuta*), the garganey or blue-winged teal (*Anas querquedula*), the shoveller (*Anas clypeata*), the marbled teal (*Anas angustirostris*) and the common teal (*Anas crecca*).

The wood duck is large and dark with black-and-white wings with French grey bars. The pink-headed duck has a milk and chocolate appearance. The marbled teal is pale with a washed-out plumage. The pintail has a long sharp tail. The shoveller has a huge mis-shapen bill, very long and twice as broad at tip as at the root. The mallard has a steel-blue or green wing-bar edged with white. The gadwal has a white wing-bar. The garganey's wing-bar is dull green, often absent. The common teal has the wing-bar black and brilliant green or bronze.

Out of the ducks, seven are, or were, resident species, viz., the white-winged wood duck, the pink-headed duck, the lesser whistling teal, the large whistling teal, spotbill or grey duck, the comb duck and cotton teal. Of the resident ducks the white-winged wood duck and the pink-headed duck are believed to have become extinct on jungle near marshes. The pink-headed duck was last shot in the Muzaffarpur district at Dumra in 1898 by J. A. Wilson. The smew, a migrant, has been observed in Bihar only once and that at Hazaribagh.

The following birds are rare: the golden-eye, the lesser whistling teal, the spotbill or grey duck, the baikal teal, the marbled teal and the falcated teal.

The comb duck and the large whistling teal are becoming rare and may be considered as threatened with extinction. Protection measures are needed, like the creation of a sanctuary to include a *jheel* and extensive marshy land and some nearby woodland for breeding. This woodland may have to be planted. The district of Muzaffarpur is one of the

most suitable areas for constituting a sanctuary for the protection of the resident ducks.*

FISH.

The names of the fish commonly found in Muzaffarpur market are given below with their Hindi names within bracket :—

Gadusia Chapra (*Suiya*), Hilsa Ilisa (*Hilsa*), Notopterus notopterus (*Phalia*), Chela bacaila (*Chelwa*), Barilius barna (*Potiah*), Danio dangila (*Durhwa*). Barbus chagunio (*Potiah*), Barbus conchonius (*Potiah*), Barbus phutunio (*Potiah*), Barbus stigma (*Potiah*), Cirrihina mrigala (*Mirgal*), Cirrihina reba (*Rewa*), Labeo calbasu (*Kalbasu*), Labeo rohita (*Rohu*), Clarias batrachus (*Mangur*), Heteropneustes fossilis (*Singhi*), Eutropiichthys vacha (*Bachwa*), Mystus cavasius (*Tengra*), Mystus seenghala (*Tengra*), Mystus vittatus (*Tengra*), Bagarius bagarius (*Gaunch*), Xenentodon cancila (*Kawa*), Ambassis nama (*Chanawa*), Anabas testudineus (*Kewai*), Mastacembelus armatus (*Barni*).

REPTILES.

The names of the snakes and other members of the reptile group have been given in Hindi. P denotes poisonous. Np denotes non-poisonous.

Lizards.—Wall lizard, Common lizard.

Snakes.—*Gehuan* (P), *Karait* (P), *Lohiar* (P), *Amaitar* (P), *Awaria* (Np), *Dhorha* (Np), *Dhamin* (It does not bite but the tail portion is very poisonous), *Patar* (P), *Katkatar* (P), *Khirrich gehuan* (P).

Chelonia.—Tortoises of small sizes have been seen in the market occasionally.

Crocodile.—Gavialis gangaticus commonly called as *Gharial* has been occasionally seen in Gandak and Ganga.

---

*BIBLIOGRAPHY : Bainbridge, Fletcher and Inglis : *Birds of an Indian Garden* (Thacker Spink and Co., Ltd., Calcutta).

Hugh Whistler : *Popular Handbook of Indian Birds* (Gurney and Jackson, London).

CHAPTER II.

CLIMATE AND RAINFALL.

CLIMATE.

Muzaffarpur district enjoys generally a bracing and healthy climate. The range of temperature is not so great as in the Patna Division in the south; and though the heat is greater than in the delta districts of Bengal proper, the comparative dryness of the atmosphere renders its effects less enervating.

The year may be divided into three well defined periods, viz., the cold weather, the hot weather and the rainy season. The first commences early in November and lasts till nearly the end of March; for though the days then begin to be hot, the nights and early mornings continue to be comparatively cool and fresh. The climate is delightful during this part of the year; the days are bright, warm and invigorating and as soon as the sun sets, the temperature falls. The hot season commencing in April is ushered in by dust-storms. The heat is intense in May and unless broken by frequent rain, continues to increase until the gathering of clouds heralds the approach of the rainy season.

The rain starts about the middle of June. Sometimes, a few days' downpour is succeeded by a week or ten days of fair weather before the rains really break. This first outburst is termed the *chhota barsat*. The rains continue till the end of September or the middle of October, when the saturated ground begins to dry. This is considered to be the most trying season of the year as the air is hot and moist, while the sun's rays are still powerful. The temperature then diminishes and by November the mornings become perceptibly cool when the winter season commences.

RAINFALL.

The district has 18 stations for which rainfall data are available. The average monthly and annual rainfall, monthly rainfall expressed as a percentage of the annual, and the average number of rainy days (having 0.10 inch or more of rain) for the district and for all the stations are given in Table 1. The averages are based on data collected up to 1940.

The district enjoys good rainfall with an annual average of 46 inches, most parts of the district receiving over 45 inches. The rainfall varies from 38 inches in the southernmost part of the district near Raghopur to 52 inches in the areas of Bairagnia and Sitamarhi in the north. The town of Muzaffarpur gets about 48 inches in a year.

The main rainy months with one inch or more are from May to October. Pre-monsoon showers in May account for about 5 per cent of the annual rainfall followed by 16 per cent in June; July and August are the rainiest months of the year and combined they receive over 50 per cent of the total annual rainfall. September is more rainy than June. As in May, the rainfall during October is also 5 per cent. Thus, over 85 per cent of the annual rainfall occurs during the monsoon months of June to September.

The average number of days of rain of 10 cents or more for the district is 46 with 50 or more over a large area. The number of rainy days of 1 cent or more is about 70. The average rainfall on a rainy day of 1 cent or more is about 0.6 inch.

Annual rainfall data of all the raingauge stations for the fifty-year period 1901—50 have been analysed and Table 2 gives the frequencies of annual rainfall in different ranges at these stations. The table also includes for each of the raingauge stations the standard deviation, co-efficient of variability (%) and the highest and the lowest rainfall values expressed as percentage of the mean.

Although the rainfall in the district is good the variations from year to year are rather large. At one of the stations the highest annual rainfall has exceeded twice the average and another has recorded as low a rainfall as 25 per cent of the average. Generally, however, none of the stations has had during the fifty-year period 1901—50 more than twice or fallen below a third of the average. The co-efficient of variability is high and of the order of 30 per cent.

Table 3 gives the frequencies in different ranges of heavy rainfall of over 3 inches in a day which has occurred at the different stations in the district based on data up to 1920. Table 4 gives occasions of heavy rainfall of over 10 inches in 24 hours, at different stations in the district based on data up to 1950. It also gives the rainfall on the previous and succeeding days.

On an average the district gets two to three falls in a year exceeding 3 inches in 24 hours. Falls of 10 inches or more may occur once in 15 to 20 years. All the stations for which the data are included in Table 4 show that they have received more than 10 inches in 24 hours. The heaviest fall in 24 hours in the district has occurred at Belsand on the 18th September 1924, the amount being 15.30 inches.

TEMPERATURE AND OTHER WEATHER CONDITIONS.

Muzaffarpur is the only station in the district which has temperature, cloud and wind data, though they relate to a period of about 20 years from 1886. Wherever necessary, the data of Darbhanga, the nearest observatory station, are supplemented.

Temperature.

The temperature data of Muzaffarpur appear in Table 5.

The mean annual temperature in this district is 77°F. Temperature begins to rise rapidly from March and attains the highest records in the months of April and May which are the hottest months of the year. The mean maximum temperature in these months is 96°F to 97°F and on individual days maximum temperatures of the order of 110°F are not uncommon. This rising trend in temperature is changed with the onset of the monsoon in the second week of June. The variations during the monsoon months of June to September are small. Temperature begins to fall markedly after the withdrawal of the monsoon in October and the lowest temperature is recorded in January and February with a mean minimum temperature of 49°F to 52°F in these months. The lowest temperature in this area is likely to be of the order of 35°F. The district has only a single maximum of temperature (in the year) as compared to stations in the coastal belt where generally a secondary maximum in the transition month of October occurs.

The mean annual range of temperature is 20°F with the highest value of 28°F in the month of March.

Relative humidity.

The dry bulb and wet bulb temperatures in °F and relative humidity (%) for Muzaffarpur and Darbhanga are given in Table 6.

The average annual humidity in the morning is 80(%) and in the evening 55 to 60%. The highest humidity is recorded in the monsoon months when on individual days the atmosphere may be saturated. The lowest values of humidity occur in the months of March and April. The humidities on individual days may be as low as 10 to 15%. The cloud amount is shown in Table 7.

Outside the monsoon months the skies are practically clear (less than 2/10ths).

SURFACE WINDS.

Average percentage frequencies of number of days of wind from different directions, throughout the year at Muzaffarpur are given in Table 8.

The wind speeds are generally low throughout the year. Calm conditions prevail during October to January. Winds blow from a westerly direction from January to March while easterly winds are predominant beyond this period till the end of September.

TABLE

Normal monthly and annual rainfall and number of rainy

Station.		January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.
1		2	3	4	5	6	7
Sitamarhi	A ..	0.53	0.52	0.59	0.84	3.13	8.30
	B ..	1.0	1.0	1.1	1.6	5.9	16.7
	C ..	1.1	1.5	1.0	1.5	4.7	9.1
Muzaffarpur	A ..	0.52	0.57	0.38	0.48	1.98	7.70
	B ..	1.1	1.2	0.8	1.0	4.1	15.9
	C ..	1.1	1.7	0.9	0.9	3.1	8.1
Hajipur	A ..	0.57	0.71	0.41	0.32	1.35	6.71
	B ..	1.3	1.6	0.9	0.7	3.1	15.2
	C ..	1.3	1.5	1.0	0.7	2.2	7.6
Paru	A ..	0.40	0.55	0.38	0.27	1.45	5.90
	B ..	1.0	1.3	0.9	0.7	3.5	14.2
	C ..	1.0	1.4	0.9	0.5	2.2	6.9
Mahua	A ..	0.53	0.71	0.32	0.33	1.65	6.92
	B ..	1.2	1.5	0.7	0.7	3.6	1.51
	C ..	1.1	1.7	0.9	0.7	2.3	7.5
Sheohar	A ..	0.50	0.50	0.43	0.53	2.27	7.41
	B ..	1.1	1.1	0.9	1.1	4.9	16.1
	C ..	0.9	1.3	1.0	1.2	3.3	7.4
Pupri	A ..	0.44	0.54	0.44	0.75	2.57	7.65
	B ..	0.9	1.1	0.9	1.6	5.4	16.1
	C ..	0.9	1.3	0.9	1.4	3.6	7.8
Raghopur	A ..	0.43	0.54	0.40	0.21	0.95	5.44
	B ..	1.1	1.4	1.1	0.6	2.5	14.5
	C ..	0.8	1.2	0.9	0.4	1.2	6.1
Sahebganj	A ..	0.11	1.01	0.20	0.22	1.77	6.98
	B ..	0.2	2.1	0.4	0.5	3.7	14.4
	C ..	0.3	2.2	0.8	0.7	2.2	6.9

1.

days for Muzaffarpur District (data used up to 1940).

July.	August.	September.	October.	November.	December.	Annual.
8	9	10	11	12	13	14
13.72	11.97	9.67	2.59	0.19	0.16	52.71
16.0	22.7	18.3	4.9	0.4	0.3	..
12.7	12.6	9.1	2.6	0.3	0.4	56.6
12.78	12.56	8.65	2.41	0.29	0.12	48.44
26.4	25.9	17.9	5.0	0.6	0.2	..
14.1	13.6	9.5	2.5	0.5	0.3	56.2
11.52	11.77	8.06	2.43	0.25	0.13	44.23
26.0	26.6	18.2	5.5	0.6	0.3	–
13.8	13.1	9.2	2.8	0.5	0.3	55.0
11.29	11.57	7.64	1.73	0.19	0.11	41.48
27.2	27.9	18.4	4.2	0.5	0.3	..
12.1	11.9	8.1	2.2	0.4	0.2	47 8
11.78	12.57	8.49	2.13	0.29	0.12	45.84
25.7	27.4	18.5	4·6	0.6	0.3	..
13.6	13.8	9.2	2.3	0.4	0.3	53.8
11.45	11.31	9.08	2.27	0.24	0.15	46.14
24.8	24.5	19.7	4.9	0.5	0.3	..
11.4	11.5	8.3	2.1	0.4	0.3	49.1
12.63	12.15	8.08	1.99	0.20	0.10	47.39
26.4	25.6	16.19	4.2	0.4	0.2	..
10.8	11.7	7.7	2.2	0.3	0.2	48.8
9.22	10.90	7.19	1.64	0.45	0.19	37.57
24.6	29.0	19.1	4.4	1.2	0.5	..
9.8	11.0	6.5	1.9	0.6	0.3	40.7
12.83	13.86	10.01	2.04	0.27	0.11	48.43
24.6	26.6	20.7	4.2	0.6	0.2	..
[illegible]	12.5	10.4	2.5	0.4	0.3	52.3

TABLE

Station.		January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.
1		2	3	4	5	6	7
Minapore	A ..	0.31	0.86	0.20	0.39	1.57	6.16
	B ..	0.7	1.9	0.4	0.9	3.5	13.7
	C ..	0.8	1.7	0.6	1.0	2.4	7.3
Katra	A ..	0.27	0.54	0.23	0.55	2.22	7.14
	B ..	0.5	1.1	0.5	1.1	4.4	14.3
	C ..	0.6	1.3	0.5	1.0	3.1	6.0
Lalganj	A ..	0.44	0.74	0.54	0.18	1.11	5.93
	B ..	1.1	1.8	1.3	0.4	2.7	14.3
	C ..	1.2	1.7	1.0	0.4	1.9	8.0
Sursand	A ..	0.32	0.52	0.54	0.78	2.70	7.55
	B ..	0.7	1.1	1.2	1.7	5.9	16.6
	C ..	0.7	1.2	0.9	1.3	3.7	7.2
Sonbarsa	A ..	0.36	0.54	0.62	0.72	2.86	8.89
	B ..	0.7	1.1	1.3	1.5	6.0	17.5
	C ..	0.5	1.1	1.1	1.4	3.6	7.4
Bairagnia	A ..	0.40	0.67	0.47	0.83	2.91	9.59
	B ..	0.8	1.3	0.9	1.6	5.5	18.2
	C ..	0.7	1.5	0.8	1.7	4.3	8.7
Belsand	A ..	0.40	0.70	0.51	0.47	2.13	8.11
	B ..	0.8	1.5	1.1	1.0	4.4	16.8
	C ..	0.7	1.5	0.8	0.8	3.0	7.7
Kurnaul	A ..	0.27	0.58	0.08	0.24	1.39	6·22
	B ..	0.6	1.2	0.2	0.5	2.9	13.0
	C ..	0.6	0.9	0.4	0.7	1.7	7.4
Meachapra	A ..	0.39	0.54	0.30	0.44	1.41	5.90
	B ..	0.9	1.3	0.7	1.0	3.3	13.9
	C ..	1.0	1.2	0.7	0.7	2.2	7.0
District	A ..	0.40	0.63	0.39	0.47	1.97	7.14
	B ..	0.9	1.4	0.8	1.0	4.3	15.4
	C ..	0.9	1.4	0.8	0.9	2.8	1.9

A—Normal rainfall in inches.
B—Monthly rainfall as percentage of annual normal.
C—Normal number of rainy days (a rainy day is one of 0.10" or more of rain).

1—*concld.*

July.	August.	September.	October.	November.	December.	Annual.
8	9	10	11	12	13	14
12.37	10.95	0.45	1.95	0.51	0.20	44.92
27.5	24.4	21.0	4.3	1.1	0.4	..
12·4	12.2	8.6	2.2	0.5	0.4	50.1
14.48	11.89	9.74	2.34	0.48	0.22	50.10
28.9	23.7	19.4	4.7	1.0	0.4	..
12.8	11.9	8.3	2.2	0·6	0.4	49.6
10.56	11.43	0.50	1.47	0.34	0.18	41.42
25.5	27.6	20.5	3.5	0.8	0.4	.
12.9	14.2	9.5	2.0	0.6	0.4	53.8
12.29	10.53	8.31	1.57	0.26	0.12	45.49
27.0	23.1	18.3	3.5	0.6	0.3	..
10.5	10.1	8.0	2.2	0.4	0.3	46.5
12.56	11.20	8.35	2.02	0.06	0.14	47.82
26.3	23.4	17.5	4.2	0.1	0.3	..
10.1	10.0	7.6	1.9	0.2	0.3	15.2
13.96	12.25	9.38	1.95	0.21	0.17	52.79
26.4	23.2	17.8	3.7	0.4	0.3	..
11.9	12.3	8.4	2.1	0.3	0.3	53.0
12.03	11.50	9.40	2 39	0.33	0.1[illegible]	48.16
25.0	23.9	19.5	5.0	0.7	0.4	..
11.2	12.6	8.5	2.0	0.3	0.3	49.4
14.30	11.29	11.53	1.65	0.11	0.09	47.84
30.1	23.6	24.1	3.5	0.2	0.2	..
12.3	11.4	9.0	1.6	0.1	0.2	46.3
11.60	12.18	6.34	1.20	0.65	0.17	43.11
26.7	28.3	19.4	2.8	1.5	0.4	..
13.4	3.8	9.6	2.0	0 7	0.5	52.8
12.29	11.72	8.88	1.99	0.30	0.15	46.33
26.5	25.3	19.2	4.3	0.7	0.3	..
12.1	12.3	9.6	2.2	0.4	0.3	44.6

TABLE

Frequency of annual rainfall in specified

Inches.	Sitamarhi.	Muzaffar-pur.	Paru.	Mahua.	Sheohar.	Pupri.	Ragho-pur.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
5.01—10.00 ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1
10.01—15.00 ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
15.01—20.00 ..	..	..	..	..	1	..	1
20.01—25.00 ..	..	1	6	..	..	1	1
25.01—30.00 ..	1	4	2	5	2	2	5
30.01—35.00 ..	..	4	5	3	3	3	8
35.01—40.00 .	6	6	10	7	10	7	4
40.01—45.00 ..	6	5	4	10	4	5	7
45.01—50.00 ..	8	8	7	8	6	5	1
50.01—55.00 ..	6	8	5	2	3	9	1
55.01—60.00 ..	7	6	1	5	5	4	2
60.01—65.00 ..	6	4	..	4	4	3	..
65.01—70.00 ..	3	2	..	1	1	1	..
70.01—75.00 ..	2	1	..	1	2	1	1
75.01—80.00 ..	2	..	..	..	4	2	..
80.01—85.00 ..	2	..	..	..	..	..	..
85.01—90.00 ..	1	..	..	..	1	..	..
90.01—95.00 ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
95.01—100.00 ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
100.01—105.00 ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
105.01—110.00 ..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..
Number of years	50	49	40	46	46	44	32
Mean rainfall in inches.	54.81	47.00	38.58	45.25	50.13	49.79	36.64
Standard Deviation.	13.53	12.04	9.75	11.18	15.70	15.34	12.32
Co-efficient of variability.	24.7	25.6	25.3	24.7	31.3	30.8	33.6
Highest rainfall ..	88.80	71.16	58.36	70.41	87.46	105.52	72.52
Highest rainfall as percentage of mean.	162	151	151	156	174	212	198
Lowest rainfall ..	27.30	20.47	21.95	25.92	19.39	24.13	8.99
Lowest rainfall as percentage of mean.	50	44	57	57	39	48	25

2.
limits period (1901—1950).

Minapur.	Saheb-ganj.	Katra.	Lalganj.	Sursand.	Sonbarsa.	Bairagnia.	Belsand.	Haji-pur.
9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
..	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	..
1	..	..	3	1	..	..	1	..
2	1	..	5	2	2	..	1	6
7	1	4	6	5	4	3	3	7
7	3	5	7	4	2	3	5	7
6	3	7	3	8	3	1	8	7
7	..	6	8	3	7	6	4	10
4	6	5	2	4	6	9	4	9
3	2	3	1	6	4	6	1	1
1	..	3	1	..	3	1	2	2
1	..	1	..	1	1	2	1	1
..	..	1	..	..	..	1	..	..
..	..	2	..	..	..	2	3	..
..	..	1	..	..	..	1	..	..
..	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..
..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..
..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..
..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
39	16	39	37	34	32	37	33	50
42.90	45.83	50.80	38.46	43.90	47.37	55.69	47.07	42.46
19.50	9.83	14.65	10.40	10.82	10.99	15.45	14.15	10.25
24.5	21.4	28.6	27.0	24.6	23.2	27.7	30.1	24.1
66.24	59.79	85.99	64.77	67.40	66.07	96.21	79.95	69.92
159	180	169	168	154	139	176	170	165
26.44	23.52	30.13	18.71	22.90	27.29	33.63	21.04	25.66
46	62	59	49	52	59	60	45	69

TABLE 3.

Frequency of heavy rain.

Station.	Number of years.	3" to 4".	4" to 5".	5" to 6".	6" to 7".	7" to 8".	8" to 9".	9" to 10".	10" to 11".	11" to 12".	12" to 13".	13" to 14".	14" to 15".
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
Sitamarhi ..	30	50	18	10	5	2	1	..	1	1	..	..	..
Muzaffarpur ..	30	36	17	10	..	3	..	..	..	1	..	1	..
Hajipur ..	30	37	13	8	2	1	1	..	1	..	1	..	..
Paru ..	30	26	21	4	..	2	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Mahua ..	30	41	16	13	4	1	1	..	..	..	..	..	..
Sheohar ..	30	22	7	4	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Pupri ..	30	48	14	6	2	..	..	..	1	1	..	..	..
Raghopur ..	12	15	5	4	2	2	1	..	..	..	..	..	..
Minapur ..	11	19	7	1	1	1	..	..	..	..	.	..	..
Katra ..	11	19	6	2	3	1	1	..	..	1	..	..	..
Lalganj ..	11	10	5	2	3	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	..
Sursand ..	11	10	2	4	..	2	1	..	...	..	..	..	..
Sonbarsa ...	11	12	7	4	..	1	..	..	..	..		..	.
Bairagnia ..	11	19	8	6	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..

TABLE 4.

Heavy rainfall of over 10 inches in 24 hours.

(This table is based on data up to 1950.)

Station.		Date.	Previous day.	Of date.	Next day.
Hajipur	..	25th June 1897 ..	2.98	10.70	2.51
Muzaffarpur	..	10th August 1904	0.20	13.20	0
Sitamarhi	..	31st July 1905 ..	1.03	11.65	2.75
Sitamarhi	..	30th September 1905	0.05	10.65	0.80
Pupri	..	30th September 1905	0.32	11.05	0
Pupri	..	13th August 1906	2.55	10.15	6.80
Pupri	..	18th September 1935	0	10.01	1.80
Muzaffarpur	..	25th June 1913 ..	0	11.50	0.21
Katra	..	18th September 1913	0	11.00	0
Lalganj	..	12th September 1915	0	10.93	0.45
Hajipur	..	8th September 1918	4.15	12.00	0.10
Kurnaul	..	7th September 1918	0.85	12.10	2.50
Muzaffarpur	..	15th September 1921	1.85	12.35	0
Sheohar	..	18th September 1924	0.20	12.50	9.50
Belsand	..	18th September 1924	8.20	15.30	0
Katra	..	11th July 1933 ..	6.40	14.80	0
Sitamarhi	..	18th September 1935	3.70	12.63	2.72
Sheohar	..	28th June 1938 ..	0.90	15.57	5.16
Belsand	..	28th June 1938 ..	0.43	10.40	3.60
Katra	..	4th August 1941	1.40	10.35	0
Sahebganj	..	3rd September 1946	0	12.00	0.14
Sitamarhi	..	19th July 1949 ..	0.54	10.00	2.50
Katra	..	30th October 1949	0.75	10.00	0
Bairagnia	..	16th August 1950	0	10.50	0.60

TABLE 5.

(1886—1920)

Months.	Mean daily maximum temperature °F.	Mean daily minimum temperature °F.	Mean temperature °F.	Highest maximum temperature °F.	Lowest minimum temperature °F.	Absolute range of temperature °F.	Mean range of temperature °F.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
January	72.8	49.2	61.0	83.0	37.0	46.0	23.6
February	77.0	52.1	64.5	95.0	36.0	59.0	24.9
March	87.9	60.1	74.0	103.0	45.0	58.0	27.8
April	96.4	69 9	83.1	108.0	54.0	54.0	26.5
May	97.1	75.8	86.5	110.0	64.0	46.0	21.8
June	92.8	79.6	86.2	108.0	67.0	41.0	15.2
July	90-2	79.1	84.7	100.0	71.0	29.0	11.1
August	89.1	78.8	83.9	97.0	73.0	24.0	10.3
September ...	89.2	77.9	83.5	96.0	70.0	26.0	11.3
October	87.7	70.8	79.3	95.0	58.0	37.0	16.9
November ...	81·5	58.9	70.2	91.0	46.0	45.0	22.6
December	74.3	49.8	62.1	82.0	40.0	42.0	24.5
Annual	86.0	66.0	76.0	110.0	36.0	74.0	10.0

TABLE 6.

Months.	Muzaffarpur 08.00 hrs.	Darbhanga 08.00 hrs.	17.00 hrs.
	Dry Bulb Temperature °F.		
January	54.3	55.8	68.7
February	58.4	59.6	74.1
March	69.4	71.6	85.2
April	79.2	80.8	96.2
May	82.8	83.0	92.3
June	83.3	83.5	89.5
July	82.4	83.0	87.3
August	82.0	82.7	86.4
September	81.9	79.2	86.1
October	77.8	80.1	84.0
November	66.7	68.5	76.1
December	56.4	58.1	69.0
Annual	72.9	73.8	82.9
	Wet Bulb Temperature °F.		
January ...	52.6	53.5	60.2
February	55.3	55.5	64.1
March	62.3	62.4	66.4
April	71.0	70.8	71.2
May	76.4	74.9	78.0
June	79.3	78.8	81.0
July	79.9	79.7	81.0
August	79.7	79.2	81.0
September	79.1	74 7	80.4
October	74.1	74.0	76.1
November ...	63.5	64.2	68.2
December	54.4	55.8	62.0
Annual	69 0	68.6	72.0
	Relative Humidity (%).		
January	89	85	58
February	81	76	57
March	65	57	34
April	65	59	26
May	73	67	52
June	83	80	69
July	89	86	75
August	90	85	79
September	88	80	78
October	83	74	69
November	83	78	65
December	87	86	66
Annual	81	76	60

TABLE 7.

Months.	Muzaffarpur 08.00 hrs.	Darbhanga 08.00 hrs.	17.00 hrs.
	Cloud Amount.		
January	1.4	2.0	1.6
February	1.3	2.1	2.9
March	0.9	1.6	1.4
April	1.0	1.7	1.7
May	1.4	3.0	2.1
June	3.8	6.0	4.5
July	5.5	7.6	6.3
August	5.4	7.6	7.2
September	3.7	5.9	6.1
October	1.4	2.4	2.3
November	0.5	1.2	1.2
December	0.5	1.1	1.7
Annual	2.2	3.5	3.2

TABLE 8.

—	January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	August.	September.	October.	November.	December.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
North	1	1	1	0	2	2	1	0	1	0	1	1
North-east	11	4	5	8	8	11	5	8	5	3	2	1
East	5	8	15	31	41	38	33	33	25	12	5	3
South-east	3	4	10	21	31	26	25	24	20	9	4	1
South ...	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	0	0
South-west	11	11	14	4	0	1	2	2	2	2	2	5
West ...	16	18	22	11	1	2	4	3	6	7	8	11
North-west	7	8	8	6	3	3	4	3	5	5	5	5
Calm ...	56	46	25	18	14	16	23	26	35	61	73	78

CHAPTER III.

DAILY LIFE.

Recent trends.

The daily life that is prevalent at the present time either in the towns or in the villages in this district is somewhat different from the daily life that was in vogue about thirty years back. The changes are more visible in the urban areas. Some of the factors that have brought about the changes are the spread of western education with all its corollaries, spread of libraries and the influence of the Press, economic condition, improvement of communications and more facilities for amusements and entertainments. Another social factor is a slow integration of some of the communities particularly in the villages. There has been a change in the social values of castes and communities. The land reforms policy of the Government has also been an important factor in doing away with the economic status of the intermediaries like the zamindars At one time the zamindars and the high caste men, both in the rural as well as in the urban areas of the district, were the natural leaders of the people. The English educated person had a fascination on the villagers. But at the moment, it cannot be said that there is anything like natural leadership as exclusive to any particular caste or community. The English educated person has not the same premium in the villages because of the unemployment incidence among them The influence of the Press particularly the Vernacular Press has been considerable in bringing about changes in the mental outlook affecting daily life.

The villages, however, had to struggle for existence as there was more attention paid to the provision of amenities for the urban areas. The abolition of the zamindari had, at the first instance, led to a swing of migration for the intelligentsia and the rich from the villages to the towns. The present policy of the Government, however, is to bring about an adjustment between the villages and the towns and to raise the value of the villages by disintegrating the previous centralised administration at the district headquarters. Any important and big village in the district now will have quite a few of the subordinate officials. This is a new feature. The Gram Panchayat system has a great role to play in raising the status of the villages. In a big village, there may now be a Block Development Officer, a Karmchari, a Mukhiya, a Gram Sewak, a Co-operative Inspector, a Veterinary Assistant, a Health Assistant, an Overseer, etc. This picture is quite different from what we had some time before when in the rural area, the only static official normally was the police thana officer. With the emphasis on development work, the villages have assumed a new role.

There is another great factor influencing the social and daily life in this district. North Bihar is famous for its *melas* and fairs. This district has a large number of *melas* some of which attract thousands of persons. When the crops are reaped, people are free to participate in

these *melas* and fairs. Whether originating in economic, religious or social reasons, these *melas* and fairs do not appear to have dwindled in their importance. They still attract a vast floating population and there is always a large turnover of saleable commodities including livestock. The two important festivals which still attract huge crowds are *Ram Navami* and *Vivah Panchami* or *Sita Vivah*.

Ram Navami.

Ram Navami is observed to celebrate the birth anniversary of Rama held to be an incarnation of Lord Vishnu. It is observed every year on the ninth day of *shukla paksha* in the month of Chaitra. However, Vaishnavas begin the festival as early as the first day of *shukla paksha* and conclude on the ninth day. This is also observed by Shaktas, believers in the Adishakti Bhawani, goddess Kali. It is an interesting fact that *Ram Navami* is preceded in the night by *Vasanti Navaratri* which is generally observed by Shaktas, and on the day following, on which day, at noon, Rama was born, *Ram Navami* is observed. The birthday of Rama is celebrated in all important temples of Rama and Sita and in the Vaishnava temples. On the ninth day of the *shukla paksha,* at noon, when the sun reaches the meridian, the priest of the temple publicly exhibits a cocoanut or cucumber (*khira*), puts it in a cradle and announces the birth of god.

On this occasion congregations are regaled with stories of the exploits of the great hero Rama who conquered Lanka (Ceylon) and killed the demon king Ravana. At places, religious dramas and dances depicting episodes from Rama's life, known as *Ramalila* are organised. On the birth-day of Rama many religious-minded people observe fast, while others take only fruits and milk.

Vivah Panchami.

Vivah Panchami is observed to celebrate the marriage anniversary of Rama and Sita. It is celebrated every year on the fifth day of *shukla paksha* in the month of Agrahan. On this occasion people, chiefly ladies, from far and wide rush to Janakpur on the border of Nepal where Rama and Sita had entered into the tie of marriage. The ceremony is celebrated with all the pomp of the marriage ceremony of an oriental prince and princess. A *barat* (bridegroom's) party is organised, a boy acts as Rama while another as Sita and others as the associates of Rama and Sita. As mentioned in the *Ramayana* the sacred bow is broken by Rama and Sita is wedded to him. On this occasion a big *mela* is held at Janakpur. These two festivals are more fondly looked forward to by the ladies in this district and have a great influence on the social life of the Hindus. The other socio-religious festivals of importance are *Chhat*, *Gopashtami*, *Mahabiri jhandah*, *Jhulan*, *Durga Pujah* and *Dewali*.

The *melas* and fairs bring to the villagers commodities which have now become a part and parcel of the village household. Articles like lanterns, torches, bicycles, better types of shoes, various toilet articles for the

ladies have a very good sale in these *melas*. In spite of better communications bringing the towns and urban markets nearer, the *melas* and fairs have still their fascination and use for the rural public. On the social side also these congregations of the villagers have helped to break up the rigours of casteism and orthodox habits. They have also helped to liquidate the *parda* system to a very great extent. The *melas* and fairs are patronised more by the women-folk.

DAILY LIFE.

The daily life of the people varies according to different status and avocation of the castes or classes. Rich people whether in the urban or in the rural areas will have a different routine than that of a poor man, a day labourer or an office assistant or a petty shop-keeper. In the urban areas, the common pattern of daily life of the intelligentsia class of people is that the person rises early in the morning and gets ready after his bath and breakfast within an hour. He reads the newspaper or has some chat and then turns to the call of his profession. This is the usual routine for a doctor or a pleader, a school or college teacher, a businessman and a Government servant. By 10 A.M. he is ready after a meal for the school, college, court or other place of business. In the evening, he will probably study, visit friends or a club or some amusement centre or spend the evening with the family. A lawyer or a doctor will have to deny himself the pleasures of social amenities some time after dusk because of the demand of his profession. Usually the businessman stays at his place of business till quite late in the night. Amusements like cinemas or theatricals will not be normally resorted to as a part of daily life. Probably once or twice in the week, one will pay a visit to the local amusements. The Sundays or other holidays are usually spent in resting or visiting friends or visiting some amusement centres. Taking holidays over a continued period to break the monotony of daily life is still rather uncommon to the average man. With the development of tourism and railway facilities this is, however, likely to develop.

The office assistants and the persons associated with the offices, courts, etc., in the towns have a regular pattern of life. By 9-30 A.M. or so, he is to get ready for office and after a quick meal, he will be in the office by 10 30 A.M. Cheap literature and particularly novels are frequently read by them in the night. In the noon he has a cup of tea with some snack.

A day labourer in the town starts his work early in the morning and returns by 6 P.M. or so His meal is either taken to the site by his people or he has some dry food like *chura, sattu or bhunja*. The labourer in the town has seldom the opportunity to have a meal at his house on a working day. Usually by the evening he comes back very tired and has to relax himself.

The daily life of a big land-owner or a big farmer in the country-side starts early in the morning. He will normally supervise the work of the

labourers. If he is a petty land-owner, he will usually do a part of the manual work. Village politics and his own cultivation affairs take away most of his time.

The labourer in a village takes some food cooked over-night known as *basia* early in the morning and goes for his work. He works in the field whole day and usually has no proper mid-day meal. If at all, a meal is taken to him by the women-folk of his family. This meal usually consists of cooked rice and probably some spinach (*sag*). He comes back home in the evening and after a wash he has his substantial meal in the night and retires. This meal will also be cooked rice, probably a little *dal* and some vegetables. The meal at the night is usually taken quite early and by 8 P.M. or so a labourer's household has retired. The women-folk of his family would add a little to the family income by working in the house of some rich neighbour. They would keep themselves busy in cooking food, washing clothes, looking after the children or do a little marketing. They will also scrape grass for fodder or pluck some leaves for the same purpose.

The average town wage-earner will go to his place of work after taking some snack, the quality of which depends on the financial means of the family. If he is a mechanic, mason or a carpenter or belongs to a slightly higher wages group, he will probably have some *chapati* made of wheat and a vegetable and probably some *gur* or a cup of tea. Some of them also take a hastily cooked meal of rice. This type of wage-earner in the town goes to his work with some *chapatis* for his mid-day meal. His substantial meal is in the night on return from work and consists of rice, *dal*, and some vegetables and very occasionally meat or some fish. Meat or fish or even *dal* daily, however, does not find place in the menu of an ordinary wage-earner in the town or in the village who earns from Rs. 1-8-0 to Rs. 2-8-0 a day. The women-folk have to do the same type of work as indicated before.

The women-folk of the average wage-earner's family in the town try to supplement the income by keeping goats or poultry if there are facilities. This is particularly so with the Muslims. If the wage-earner of a lower income group belongs to a caste which does not observe *parda* the women-folk will probably add to the family income by hawking fruits or vegetables.

FOOD.

It is not financially possible for the ordinary lower income group family to have any balanced diet and the food taken is particularly deficient in protein or fruits. The middle class or the upper income group, however, take a very small quantity of meat or fish probably about twice a week. The size and the income of the family control the menu of the middle class whether of the upper income group or of the lower income group, both in the urban and rural areas. It is only the night meal in the family that is usually looked forward to as this meal is taken at leisure with the members of the family. This meal does not

much differ in the quality from the morning meal. Rice, *chapati*, *dal*, some vegetables and probably some milk form the usual menu with an occasional variation with a very small quantity of fish or meat or sweets. Eggs have not yet become an ordinary item of food in the rural areas. With the rise in the price the middle class of lower and higher income groups are slowly turning more to meat than fish. *Ghee* as a cooking medium has become a casualty and hydrogenated oil is now the common cooking medium *Ghee* adulterated with hydrogenated oil has a ready market. Even hydrogenated oil is being adulterated.

ENTERTAINMENTS.

Burdened with economic pressure there is not much scope for amusement or entertainment in the daily life of an average middle class family. The people of the country-side unfortunately waste a lot of their leisure in laziness and discussion of village politics or the current gossips in the neighbouring town. It is, however, a pleasant feature that *bhajans*, *kirtans*, *Sat Narayan puja*, *milads* are an attraction. *Jatra* parties, wrestling and theatricals have a strange fascination for the villagers. Cinemas are a great attraction.

INFLUENCE OF COURTS.

A section of the middle class people of the country-side is in the habit of attending the court and this appears to be both a necessity and a form of entertainment. Usually in the villages there are professional *pairbihars* who are the link between the lawyers and the litigant public. Such people are taken by the litigants to the court for getting their work done Their daily life is to leave the village on the previous night or in the early morning if there is a convenient train or a bus and carry with them the parties. They will visit the houses of the lawyers, get the cases ready and spend the whole day in the court and will come back to the village in the night. They have a busy life.

AFFLUENT CLASS

The daily life of the people belonging to the more affluent class who are not in any profession or business, whether in the urban or in the rural areas rather moves in an idle groove such as taking a heavy meal, long siestas, visiting friends and places of amusements. etc. With the abolition of the zamindari this class is affected and has got to be work-minded. Muzaffarpur district had a number of families both in the interior and in the towns known for their aristocracy and culture.

LADIES.

Ladies of the house of a middle class family both in the rural and urban areas have to do a lot of household work. It is difficult for a middle class family to indulge in a number of servants. The average middle class family which depends on service or a profession for livelihood can afford to keep only one servant or a maid-servant either whole-time

or part-time to help the ladies in their household work. The boys do not usually help the ladies in their household work even though they can. The adults also hardly do any household work excepting a little marketing. The ladies have to look after their children, do the cooking, clean the house, wash, sew or mend the clothes of the family and at their leisure time they would probably do a little needle-work, knitting or some embroidery work. The young girls of the urban middle class family are usually sent to the schools and so the mistress of the house is deprived of their help in running the household excepting on holidays. On such holidays the girls are usually employed in sewing, knitting, embroidery work and to help in cooking. It is only in very few middle class families that girls are taught music. The cinema has definitely developed in the girls a liking for music and dance. The ladies of a middle class family usually devote a portion of their time in making *achars* (pickle), *burees, morabbas* or to desiccate vegetables and dry them (*sukhauta*) to be used in the rainy season when vegetables are scarce and expensive. Certain handicrafts, however, appear to be dying out amongst the ladies at the moment. Such handicrafts are making baskets from particular kinds of reeds called *siki* and *munja*, sewing cloth covers, making artistic designs on cloth with shells, etc. The reason is not far to seek. The economic pressure has made the ladies turn to such occupations as will be more useful for the family. It is quite common now for the ladies to knit sweaters, mufflers, hose, etc., and naturally they have no time to make cloth covers for *pandan* as *pandan* itself is becoming a luxury, or make a basket of *siki* and *munja* which could be bought if necessary for a few annas. The spread of female education has definitely led to a better tone in the average middle class family, a distinct change for the better in food, dress and mode of living.

TOILFT.

Normally people both in towns and in villages are early risers. Bathing is a common habit. A good deal of attention is paid to personal hygiene. The mouth is usually cleansed with twigs of *nim, bamboo, karanj, chirchiri, bat*, etc. The twig is also split into two parts and a part is used to clean the coating of tongue. The use of tooth brush and tooth paste is more confined to the richer and urban class of people. Clay or soap is largely used. Use of soap has tremendously gone up. Massage of the body with oil is a common practice, particularly in the middle and upper class people. The oils that are used are mustard, coconut, *gulrogan*, *til* or some other scented oil. Ladies usually shampoo their hair with clay, *amla* or curd mixed with mustard oil. Bottled shampoo has not yet made a headway. On some days ladies also massage with oil or a paste made of turmeric before bath. Males generally do not have this turmeric massage. Use of *itr* or musk for ceremonial occasions or to show honour to a guest is dying out. The use of soap has become common and is pushing out *sajimati* (a kind of clay), and *ritha* (soap berry) which were in common use before.

Dress, etc.

Shoes are not used commonly by the labourers or people of lower income group. Use of shoes is common in the middle class families both in the rural and urban areas particularly when going out of the house. There has not been much change in the wearing apparel of ladies excepting in the cut of the dress or mode of wearing them. Use of *shalwar* and *dopatta* is becoming more popular particularly for the young girls in town. During the last war owing to the high prices of *dhoties* men-folk started using trousers and this has stuck. A pair of trousers will last longer and is more economical in the long run than a pair of *dhoties*. Use of half pants or shorts is also more in vouge now for school going children Boys in the colleges wear trousers which was very unusual 30 years back. Buttoned up or open neck coat is becoming a casualty among the younger generation and bush shirts are replacing them. Open neck shirts mostly half sleeves, a pair of trousers or *dhoti* or *payjamas* are the usual costume of the average middle class males for out-door wear. The western costume of a pair of trousers, shirt, with tie and an open neck coat for office purposes is being slowly replaced by trousers and bush shirt or buttoned up coat. For ceremonial occasions men wear *kurta* and *payjama* or *sherwani* and *churidar payjama* or a buttoned up short coat (prince coat) and a pair of trousers. Use of turban or cloth cap for the head is distinctly on the decline. Ladies have their finger nails painted by the barber woman or themselves on ceremonial occasions. *Mehdi* leaf decoction is the usual material for such painting. Lip-sticks, rouge or other toilette articles for ladies are no longer confined to a very small and negligible percentage of richer families in towns Jewellery is more worn by the ladies while going out of the house.

Salutation.

The custom of salutation is an integral part of the daily duty. Salutation by touching the feet or knee is supposed to be the most intimate and affectionate. Raising of both hands and touching the forehead and uttering the word "*pranam*" or "*namaste*" is the usual mode of salutation It is also customary to touch each other as a mode of affection and salutation. Exchange of smile is also a recognised form of greeting. If two equals meet the usual mode of salutation may be by just touching each other with their right hand.

Hermits or *gurus* or persons who are very senior and highly respected are usually saluted by uttering "*dandvat*" and by joining the two hands and by lowering the body and touching their feet. Previously caps or turbans used to be taken off when salutations were offered to the superiors or at the temples. This mode of salutation is also dying out.

Eating Places.

A remarkable new feature in the towns is the growth in the number of tea, *pan* and *sherbat* stalls and cheap eating places which often

make encroachments on public roads. Owing to the congestion in the towns many people have to come from the villages and have to take a snack meal and these eating houses cater for them. Usually fried food (*pakorahs*), cheap snaks and *sherbat*, tea or a simple hot cooked meal are available in them. A number of (Punjabi hotels and Bengali sweetmeat shops have grown up in the urban areas.

Tea, *lussee* (cold drink of curd) and *sherbat* are the usual drinks served in restaurants and hotels. Coffee has not made much headway. The big towns in the district each have one or two bars where stronger drinks are available. The *bhathi khana* or the country liquor shops are common feature in every town and also in some of the larger villages. *Tari* or fermented palm juice is a popular beverage in the summer season. *Tari* is the poor man's beer. Smoking is spreading. Cheap cigarettes have a ready market. *Biris* and *khaini* (chewing tobacco) are for the labourers and cultivators. Cigars are confined to an intellectual minority.

COMMON FOODSTUFF AND COOKING.

A brief mention may be made of the common food and its method of cooking. Among the cereals used rice ranks easily the first and then comes *marua*, maize and wheat. Fish and meat are the principal items of non-vegetarian food. Game birds, chickens, ducks or eggs hardly come in the ordinary menu. Fruits also are not a common item of the dietary excepting probably plantains or mangoes during the season provided they are cheap. Sweet potatoes, *sattu*, *litti*, *chura* and curd (*dahi*) occupy the first position in the menu of the average common man Milk is a common item for those who could afford. Milk is consumed purely as milk and also in the form of curd, *ghee*, butter and *chhena*. The milk of both cows and buffaloes is used. Goat milk is coming into vouge in the towns.

Potatoes, *parwals*, ladies' fingers, *lauki*, *komhra*, brinjals and cauliflowers are the common vegetables. The use of onion is becoming common. Garlics are not very much used. Salad consisting of slices of tomato, radish, onions, etc., has been introduced in the last few years both in the villages as well as in the towns.

Several methods of cooking are in vouge. Roasting in fire is one of the primitive methods of cooking but is now confined to making what is known as *chokha* by adding salt, mustard oil, green or red pepper to the potato or brinjal or any other kind of vegetables roasted. Some grains such as wheat, barley, gram and maize are scorched and used as food (*oraha*). Frying is also a common method and grains like paddy, rice, flat rice, gram, maize and peas are usually fried by putting them on the body of the fire or on hot sand. The grains fried in this manner go by name of *bhunja*. Frying with *ghee* or oil but without water is resorted to usually for preparing vegetables known as *bhunjia* or *chakka* (big flat pieces of vegetables coated with *besan*).

Another process which is coming into use is stewing vegetables or meat in closely covered pots with *ghee* or oil and some condiments or even just in water. By this method one can get stewed vegetables or meat which is easily digestible and this is more or less confined to the middle and upper class families with an acquired taste for food without spice. Another method of cooking is to steam vegetables or meat in a closed cooker or in a closed utensil. *Ghee*, mustard oil, some other kind of oil, or hydrogenated oil is the usual cooking medium.

Chapatis or bread are usually baked with the help of the utensil known as *tawah* or pan for baking them on the fire. They are not placed long either on the pan or on the fire. *Parathas* or thicker *chapatis* and *kachauris* fried in *ghee* or hydrogenated cooking medium are considered a delicacy. Salted fried snacks are kept in stock for a quick repast.

Food is ordinarily cooked on an open oven which has two mouths. They are made of clay or bricks and there is an opening below through which the fuel feeds the fire and the items of food are put in two pots and are prepared simultaneously.

Vegetarian food has also a variety, some of which may be mentioned here. They are various kinds of sweets and *kheer* prepared from milk. *raita*, *karhi-bari*, various kinds of *papars*, *tilauri*, *adauri*, *kumhrauri*. Special kinds of sweet pudding are prepared with the help of milk, *ghee* and dried fruits such as *pista*, *kismis*. *Kachauri* or *pooree*, or *polao* with or without some vegetables could be made very savoury. *Poorees* stuffed with powdered gram or *sattu* or with pulse and *ghee* are very much liked. They are also offered to the family deities in temples.

The culinary condiments which are generally used in the preparation of savoury dishes are turmeric, cumin-seeds, red pepper, black pepper, ginger, cardamoms both big and small, cloves, corriander seeds, cinnamon, nutmeg, mace, cassia, cubeb. mustard, saffron, onion, garlic and green chillies.

Meat is prepared in various ways. *Kabab*, *korma*, *kalia*, *doh-piyaja* and curry are the legacy of *muglai* or Moslem cooking. Roast, stew, cutlets, steak chops, etc., have come into the menu from the West. Spices, chillies, saffron, black pepper, vineger, turmeric, etc., are the condiments largely used for cooking meat.

The utensils used for cooking in common household are *batlohis* for cooking rice or pulse, cauldron of brass or iron, flat pans, tongs for catching hold of and taking out breads, *jhanjh* for taking out *poorees* from the hot *ghee* in which it is fried, *karahi*, a kind of high edged pan for preparing *pua* or *jalebi* (sweets).

A special room is usually set apart if accommodation permits for the kitchen and the verandah is commonly used for taking food. The family sits in a verandah in a line and food is served hot and quick from

the kitchen. Previously cooks used to be drawn from the Brahmin caste. But now cooks of other castes are also employed even by higher caste Hindus. Particularly in families which do not observe caste restrictions Dusadhs or Kahars are commonly employed as cook. Muslim cooks are also in demand.

Among the prohibited food mention may be made of beef and pork. Beef is taboo for Hindus and pork is taboo for the Muhammadans. This prohibition still holds its own both in the towns and in the villages. But the other taboos, current twenty-five years back, such as not eating fish, meat, onions, garlic, brinjals or potatoes on a particular day of the week or on a festival day are not usually observed now. The average middle class family observes more in breach the customary taboos on particular food for the New Moon, Full Moon and *ekadasi* if left to itself.

TEA AND SMOKING.

Tea drinking has become common in the middle class family and in the group of people belonging to the class of the mechanics, drivers and other hard manual labourers. Tea drinking has not yet become a habit with the cultivating class or the lower income group in the villages. Coffee is absolutely confined to a very small percentage of middle class families in the urban areas. Cold drinks or *sherbat* are used very occasionally and more for ceremonial purposes in a common middle class family. Aerated waters are confined to the townships. Cold drinks prepared with various kinds of seeds of flowers, rose petals, almond, black pepper, curd and sugar are in vogue . *Bhang* is also a beverage indulged in but more on ceremonial occasions particularly on the *pooja*, *holi* and *diwali* days along with spicy dishes of meat. The consumption of country liquor is not common in the middle class family. Foreign liquors are confined to the higher income group of urban people. The habit of smoking is spreading particularly among the younger generation. Ladies of some castes also smoke the *hookah*. *Hookahs* or hubble-bubbles are dying out. *Biris* and cigarettes are replacing the *hookahs*. The chewing of *pan* is very common and the expenditure of the common middle class family on *pan* is not inconsiderable. Cigars have a restricted circle of its adherents.

HOBBIES.

Reading of books or newspapers has yet to become a habit in the average educated family, whether in the rural or in the urban areas. Cheap books on light subjects and particularly novels in English or in Hindi have, however, some attraction. Libraries in the towns are not so well patronised as the libraries in the villages. Hindi newspapers are, however, making a slow headway. Libraries in the villages are being well patronised. Gardening as a hobby has yet to make a headway. Indoor games are the usual hobby.

Radio sets are still a luxury both in the urban and rural areas due to economic reasons. Radios are switched on more for the film

songs or news than for the educative talks. Unless the prices of the radio sets are very much reduced or more radios are set up at different public places in every township or a big village, it will take quite some time for the common man to become radio-minded. As already mentioned amusements and entertainments hardly form a regular feature in the life of the average comman man. Popular lectures, art exhibitions, and cultural shows have not yet become a regular part of the civic life.

PASTORAL SONGS.

Pastoral songs have still a prominent role in the daily life of the villagers. They are full throated songs by men and women while working in the field at transplantation of paddy or harvesting the crops. The theme is generally a love episode or a famous battle of the past. Sweet and melodious they are often in the form of question and answer. They are important for their musical value. These unrecorded lyrics are handed down from generation to generation by work of the mouth. Many songs have been lost.

With the advent of spring in the month of March, men begin to sing a type of song full of mirth, joy and rather suggestive appeal to women known as *holi*. This is sung till the festival of *holi* at the end of the month of *Falgun*. *Holi* is not sung in any other season. With the *rabi* harvest ready in the field in the month of Chaitra, they begin another type known as *Chaiti*. These songs weave a thread round the romantic love of the newly wed couples or lovers. This goes on till the thrashing and harvesting of *rabi* crop. It marks the close of the cycle of harvests and a fresh start is made by sowing new crops which require water after a month or two. Songs sung during this season, i.e., before the rains set in in the month of Asarh and also during rainy season, i.e., Shravan and Bhado depict cloudy scenes, torrential rains and thunders of the cloud. This is known as ' *kajli* '. It is also meant to please rain-gods to send down rains. Women have their own set up of songs for this season. They swing on ' *jhooles* ' (swings) and sing *kajli*. Sometimes when rains are delayed, they come out of the village in groups and sing songs invoking the pleasure of the rain-gods.

Labourers both men and women are fond of singing while paddy transplantation goes on in the field. They have a special type of songs for this occasion. Women sing songs full of humour and jokes while men sing romantic amorous songs inviting their sweet-hearts to come and join them in the pleasant weather. A special type of song known as ' *birha* ' is sung on these occasions. Generally the singers go on composing when they sing. There is not much of established version. These songs are not very rhythmic and methodical.

FOLK LITERATURE AND SONGS.

Quite a number of such pastoral and folk songs are very good example of imagination. There are some long descriptive songs,

delineating chivalrous character of some imaginary personality of the past ages. Stories of '*Alha*' and '*Kunwar Vijayee*' are available in book form. They are very popular. Many villages have got a man who remembers the whole story in verse by heart. Sometimes they go on singing such songs for the whole night at the pressing demands. They sing them at the pitch of their voice and louder the tone the better is its effect on the audience. They are not accompanied by any musical instrument. Nothing is known about the authorship of these verses.

One or two remarkable writers of songs in people's every day language have become very popular. Songs of one Bhojpuri composer Bhikhariya are very popular. These songs are about village life, methods of cultivation or some prevalent undesirable questions such as early marriage, dowry system, etc. They have acted as a powerful satire on many habits of the villagers. Another writer of importance is the author of anonymous 'Bideshia Natak'. It deals with the life of a villager who was married early and points out the consequences that follow afterwards.

Cinema songs have gained in popularity and they seem to be slowly working against the old folk-songs. The younger generation does not appear to be impressed by the old music in comparison with the new lilt in cinema songs. Cinema songs have not, however, got a lasting hold. One popular song is soon replaced by another. The old folk-songs are nearer the life of the villagers and give a truer picture of their life, culture and habits.

A tendency to enrich folk literature in regional languages has been noticed in recent few years among the poets of acknowledged status. They have attempted at producing folk-songs and their creation is easily distinguishable from the old folk-songs which were unsophisticated and natural expression of a villager's sentiments.

WITCHCRAFT.

There is still a popular belief in witchcraft influencing the daily life. There is a notion among the villagers that by practising certain rites and enchanting certain *mantras* on the burial ground during the period of *Dasarah* and *Dewali* festivals, a man or a woman can attain the superhuman power of killing a creature at will and carrying anything wherever he or she likes. Some near or dear one of the family is believed to be sacrificed by the practitioner of the craft in the beginning after which alone that superhuman power is bestowed. Children are supposed to be their easy prey and every mother tries to keep her child away from any woman of the village who is suspected to know this art. There are certain methods of protection such as applying black ointment in the eyes, tying black strings on the forearm of the child and wearing certain metallic ornaments containing blessed ashes or some paper with *mantras* written on it. When a child falls ill and is supposed to be under the influence of some witch a priest or

a *tantric* is called or the help of some spiritual deity is invoked to ward off the effects. Fantastic stories of cure by such worships help these unsophisticated people in getting a firm hold on the mind of the villagers. In many cases of serious illness in a village a *tantric* or a man supposed to have got supernatural powers is found doing something simultaneously with the surgeon or the doctor; and sometimes he is more relied upon than the latter.

SNAKE WORSHIP.

There is a Hindu mythological belief that there is a king of snakes which holds the earth on its head. They feel obliged to it for keeping the earth on its head and thus helping the snakes in living. It is believed that this king of snakes called Sheshanag loves to take milk and fried paddy. This food is offered during a *puja* to the snakes in the month of Sravan.

TREE WORSHIP.

Certain trees as *pipal*, banyan and *amla* are worshipped by the villagers. The *pipal* tree is considered to be holy and nobody generally cuts it down or uses its wood for fuel. Spirits are believed to live on *pipal* trees and they are worshipped if they happen to lie in the village or outside it near a temple, etc. There are some people who regularly pour water at the root of *pipal* trees in belief that Rama's devotee, Hanumanjee, would be pleased with them one day and bestow superhuman powers on them and help them in getting salvation. Other trees are significant for specific reasons. Generally they are worshipped because they are considered to be the abode of a particular god, deity or ghost. Women offer *puja* under such trees at the time of marriage and birth in the family. In this way they hope to win the support and help of the spirit living on the trees at the time of marriage or birth. Some trees are worshipped for getting a child. Generally such trees are very old and big. The basis is an erotic idea.

HOUSING AND HOUSEHOLD.

Changes are seen also in the pattern of houses and household particularly in the urban areas. The traditional house with a few rooms, narrow verandahs and *angans* with a well, kitchen, lavatory and cowshed is now better planned although the floor space has become less. The use of cement is common and the low mud and brick house with lime is being replaced by cement concrete smaller houses. Owing to the great demand of residential houses flat system has been superimposed on houses which were not built for that purpose and not much privacy is allowed. The part of the house in the towns which is neglected is the bath-room. Even in big residential houses very small bath-rooms are to be seen. Housing conditions are rather exacting in every town and for the average family the house rent paid represents a big percentage of his income. Although living in flats is gradually coming in vogue with difficulties about sharing of entrance, kitchen, bath-room, lavatory, well or tap there are no signs of community cooking coming in. Even in a small house where there are several occupants everyone

has a separate cooking arrangement. Yet this system of sharing houses goes to break down many social conventions and caste barriers.

There has not been much change in the pattern of houses in the villages. Richer people who are building cement concrete houses in the villages are adopting the models in vogue in towns adding certain rural features. There is more of living space per inmate in the houses in the rural area. The poor live in very small huts in insanitary conditions.

Another sign of the upgrading of standard of living is in the provision of more furniture in the household in both rural and urban areas. The average family has some furniture in the house consisting of bedstead, tables and chairs. Even in a household of the lower income group there will be found one or two benches, tables, a couple of stools or chairs. The families of the higher income groups have the proper furniture for the drawing and dining and other rooms.

ORNAMENTS.

Craze for ornaments in women-folk still forms a part of the daily life. Gold and silver ornaments are usually prized by the women. Brass, copper and other cheaper ornaments are meant for the poorer sections Bangles of glass and chains of glass beads and various kinds of stones have a ready sale. The pattern of ornaments has changed to some extent particularly with the introduction of the stone-set jewellery. Owing to the economic reasons heavy ornaments with variegated patterns are being replaced by lighter ornaments with more attractive style. Many of the ornaments used by the last generation are dying out. Ornaments used to be worn by the males a few decades back. At present excepting rings males do not wear ornaments as a rule.

GENERAL.

The outline of daily life described above is a pattern which is commonly found but naturally it would somewhat differ in particular communities or castes.

MIDDLE CLASS.

It may be mentioned that the upper middle class of the urban areas formed and still forms the backbone of the culture and intellect in the district. Some of the zamindars of the last generation were not only enlightened themselves but they liberally contributed towards the spread of education and provision of medical relief. They were also great patrons of music, dance and art. They had founded a large number of temples and other religious institutions.

THE BAR.

The Bar at Muzaffarpur and in the mufassil contained some of the best brains of the province and their contribution to legal knowledge has been considerable. Muzaffarpur Bar at one time had a sprinkling of European barristers. Mention may be made of one of them. Mr. Springle Kennedy, whose wife and daughter were killed by the

bomb thrown by Sri Khudiram Bose to whom reference has been made in a separate chapter. Fortunately the interest of many of the foremost members of the Bar of the last few generations went beyond the court rooms and they were instrumental in founding a large number of educational and cultural institutions in the district. It was again the members of the Bar that took the leading part in the various phases of the political movement. In 1907-08 when a very large number of *raiyats* were arrested in Bettiah for refusing to cultivate indigo, it were some members of the Muzaffarpur Bar who took up the cases of the oppressed *raiyats* at Bettiah without any remuneration. When Khudiram Bose was tried there was no dearth of lawyers in Muzaffarpur to defend them in spite of the fact that they incurred official displeasure which meant a lot those days. It was again the members of Muzaffarpur Bar who were in the fore-front when Mahatma Gandhi made his historic enquiry against the indigo planters of Champaran district in 1907. When the Non-co-operation Movement was started some of the members of the Muzaffarpur Bar threw away their lucrative practice and joined him. There has been a steady flow of such members of the Bar to do work for the country till now. It may also be mentioned that the relationship of the Bench and the Bar at Muzaffarpur was all through cordial. The judiciary and the executive in Muzaffarpur district had some of the well known administrators under the British regime. The Bar and the Judiciary have a great contribution to the daily life of the intelligentsia.

THE PLANTERS.

The presence of a large number of European planters who were to be found probably at a distance of every 10 miles and the existence of a large number of smaller zamindars were the two other characteristic features of Muzaffarpur district. Both these communities along with the other sections mentioned before did contribute a lot towards building up the social and economic life of the district which go to make up the daily life of the present generation.

THE ZAMINDARS.

As zamindari has been abolished it may be mentioned here that many of the existing charitable and educational institutions owe their existence to the landed aristocracy. By patronising the fine arts the landlords had kept up the flow of culture from the past. In some of the old *Kabuliyats* the social obligations of the landlords were mentioned. In many cases they had fulfilled the obligation. Their contribution has a lot to do with the daily life of the people.

The prosperity of the district depends on a simultaneous and healthy development of both rural and urban areas. The modern gadgets like torches, bicycles, plastics and radios are no longer a novelty to the villagers. The Community Projects, the setting up of Anchals and Gram Panchayats and the availability of electricity are up-grading the villagers' daily life which is compensating the urbanisation of other areas.

CHAPTER IV.

ECONOMIC CONDITION OF THE PEOPLE

INTRODUCTION.

Before discussing the economic condition of the people it has to be mentioned that the district is predominantly agricultural and in spite of a certain amount of disintegration, the effects of joint family system are still lingering. It has further to be observed that one individual usually holds a variety of land rights besides earning an independent income from some other source. He might have been a zamindar (before the zamindari was abolished), a tenure-holder, a tenant, a wage-earner under an employer or an independent wage-earner as an industrialist. This feature in the economic life coupled with the fact that even if there is no active joint family system in the family the members in their distress may turn to the better placed individual, explains why in spite of the average income of the common man being so poor, there is not that stress of poverty which the average income should indicate. There is a sort of cushion in the family, a padding in the economic life which absorbs much of the shock of individual poverty. In spite of a definite trend towards the urbanisation, the district still exists in the villages. There has, however, been a very recent trend of the better class and the intellectual element in the villages going over to the towns. This trend, however, has not yet assumed a proportion that would upset the economic condition of the rural areas. This is so because in spite of their flight to the urban areas, they have not, nor can they, afford to snap the links with the villages.

AREA.

The total area of the district is 19,31,520 acres. The average taken for the years 1945—48 shows that the average cultivated area is 15,11,261 acres. The total culturable waste lands in the district has been calculated to be near about 59,886 acres. These culturable waste lands can hardly strictly be called as waste because they are mostly *chaurs* or water-logged marshes. When the water dries up, portions of the *chaurs* are cultivated. At places, the water of the *chaurs* is used for irrigation purposes. Some of these culturable waste lands are used as grazing grounds or for obtaining grass for thatching houses. The non-culturable waste lands have been calculated to be 58,969 acres. The rest of the area of the district is covered with homestead lands, roads, tanks, etc. Muzaffarpur is one of the thickly populated districts in the State and it may be said that practically the entire land area is fully occupied. The density of the population is acute in spite of seasonal emigrations. There appears to be hardly any scope for extension of cultivation in the district. There is, however, ample scope for more intensive cultivation on improved lines.

LAND TENURE.

The district had permanent zamindari system of land revenue settlement. The State Government have acquired the zamindaris and the intermediary link between the *raiyat* and the Government has been abolished. The zamindars have not yet been paid their full compensation. At the moment, the class of zamindars has been economically hit as there is a complete change in their status and sources of income. But there has been no vacuum created as it is only a very small percentage of zamindars that depended only on their zamindari for livelihood before the abolition of the zamindari. Most of the zamindars had their ample *bakast* lands and were also tenure-holders or tenants on their own rights. Some of their sources of income have not been touched. It is expected that with the abolition of zamindari they will take to, as they are already taking to, business or other professions.

TENURES.

There are various tenures under which land in the district is held by different classes of tenants. The most important tenure is the occupancy tenure. An occupancy tenant is a person who holds land in a village for 12 years or more or, has acquired an occupancy holding in the village. The occupancy tenant has the right to hold, or transfer by sale, gift or inheritance, his holding subject to the obligation to pay rent to the landlord. The payment of rent is the first charge on the land. The area of lands under occupancy tenants totals 11,02,764 acres.

There are a number of other tenures in the district, such as *gair-majarua-am*, *gair-majarua-khas*, *devottar*, *brahmottar* and other service tenures, *bhauli*, and *zirat*. *Gair-majarua-am* lands are lands meant for general public use. The outlets of village water, ditches, small strips of land on the road-sides, public grazing grounds, etc., are usually placed in this category. These lands are neither the property of the landlord, nor the property of individual tenants. They belong to the village in its collective capacity. These lands cannot be leased out by the landlord. *Gair-majarua-khas* lands, on the other hand, are lands held by the landlord for the public use of the village. The landlord has the right to settle these lands with individual tenants. The landlord has full proprietary right in these lands and he can transfer part or whole of his right in this category of lands.

Service tenures originated in the form of gift of rent-free lands by the zamindars to priests, scholars, etc. These lands are held in perpetuity free from the obligation of paying rent. In most cases they are transferable not only by inheritance but also by sale, mortgage or gift. Originally nothing had to be paid to the landlord or the Government for these lands. But now local cess has to be paid. The area of such lands in the district, however, is very small.

Bhauli is a tenure under which the tenant holds land subject to payment of rent in kind. Orchards, bamboo groves, and culturable

lands are in some cases held under this tenure. In the case of culturable lands, the share of the landlord usually varies from 7/16ths to 9/16ths of the produce raised although the common acceptance is that half the produce has to be given. Amendments to the Bihar Tenancy Act have helped to abolish this kind of tenure.

Another important category of lands is that of the *zirat* lands. *Zirat* lands occupy 4,71,200.58 acres. Due to the previous existence of a large number of small zamindars, the proportion of the *zirat* lands to the total area for the district is very large. The big landlords with large areas of *zirat* land have found it profitable to settle portions of the *zirat* land with some tenants. The smaller landlords find it more profitable to do personal cultivation of the *zirat* land.

Another explanation for the *zirat* lands covering nearly one-third of the total cultivated land area is the existence in the past of a large number of European planters in the district. The European planters were always keen to consolidate blocks of land for *khas* cultivation. The planters obtained land on long lease and they also purchased lands from the zamindars. Lands which were under the actual cultivation of the landlords prior to the passing of the Bengal Tenancy Act of 1885 were classified as *zirat* lands.

These *zirat* lands have the peculiar feature that occupancy right does not accrue in these lands even when they are settled to occupancy tenants provided the settlement is made from year to year or for a fixed term of years. The existence of such a large area of *zirat* lands in a thickly populated district like Muzaffarpur has important consequences. The landlords were given an opportunity to exploit landless agricultural labourers and small cultivators. The burden of population on land becomes more acute and the size of the agricultural holding for the individual cultivator becomes very small. A large number of people, thereby, were forced to depend on a smaller block of land The only relieving feature of consolidated *zirat* land is that the individual can invest more capital on the land and enter into ambitious schemes for agricultural production on improved lines.

Cess and Rent.

The cess (local cess) realised during 1949-50 was Rs. 9,24,678, in 1950-51 Rs. 10,53,941, in 1951-52 Rs. 10,08,994, and in 1952-53 it was Rs. 9.25,314. Figures for the total rent collection, and for the net income from *zirat* and *jalkar* are not available. But on the basis of the cess collected, the annual rental value of the lands of the district may be estimated at about Rs. 98,70,000 to Rs. 1,05,00,000. The average incidence of rent per cultivated acre of land comes to nearly Rs. 6-9-0 per year. But even this figure gives a wrong impression of the burden of rent on lands held by the *raiyats*. *Zirat* lands and *bhauli* lands are rated at a lower level for the purpose of calculation of cess. Therefore, the average incidence of rent on

occupancy holdings can easily be estimated at about Rs. 7-8-0 per acre. The rates of rent in this district are definitely higher than in the adjoining district of Darbhanga, which is almost equally thickly populated. If we compare the incidence of rent in this district with that of Purnea, we find that the rent in Muzaffarpur district is about three times that in Purnea district. In the thirties when the agricultural prices were very low, the rent of land must have been felt more heavy.

Rents are generally lower in the bigger estates. Besides, other rights of the tenants are also less interfered within those estates. But the division of small zamindaris into small fragments by the co-sharers has often led to an attempt by the landlord to squeeze the tenants as much as they possibly can. In these cases and in the cases of small lease-holders and *thikadars*, the rents have been considerably pushed up.

The rent structure in the district has its peculiarities. Rents vary on account of various reasons. Firstly, there are variations in rent on account of variation in the productivity of the lands. The lands which grow money crops like sugarcane, tobacco, potato, etc., or lands which grow three or four crops in the year pay higher rent than other lands. Variation occurs also on account of the location of the land. Rents are generally higher in Hajipur subdivision than in other subdivisions of the district. Lastly, variation occurs according as the land falls within a bigger estate or within the estate of a small proprietor.

Cash rent was the general rule before the zamindari system was abolished although a considerable portion of the cultivated area was assessed with rents in kind. Besides taking almost half of the produce, the landlord will also take an annual *salami* usually Rs. 4 to Rs. 10 per acre. The *salami* may also be paid in kind such as by loaning the plough or free supply of some labour or supply of milk, etc. The *bataidar* is a tenant-at-will who holds land at the pleasure of the owner. The tenancy legislation has made a provision that a *bataidar* if he has continued to cultivate the land for three years or more, could get the rent converted into cash. Owing to the prevalence of high prices of grains, the landlords stood to gain a lot by taking half of the produce. But commutation of rent into cash was widely encouraged and rent in kind is becoming extinct.

Another kind of rent payment known as *mankhap* has now become out of date. Under this system, the land is let out on the assurance of a fixed return from the lands. *Mankhap* rents are estimated to be about Rs. 60 to Rs. 70 per year per acre. Zamindars who have more *zirat* lands than they can conveniently cultivate and people engaged in services usually adopted this system.

It has already been mentioned that for *bhauli* land rent in kind has to be paid. The total area of *bhauli* lands is 52,873.96 acres. Nearly 50 per cent of the *zirat* lands used to be cultivated either under

batai system or under *mankhap* system. This gives an area of about 2,35,000 acres. Nearly one-tenth of the occupancy holdings in the district is cultivated by *bataidars*. The area of occupancy holdings cultivated by *bataidars* may be put at 1,10,270 acres. Thus, the total area of the district cultivated under different systems of payments comes to 3,98,743 acres. The average incidence of rent on these lands can be estimated at about Rs. 75 per year per acre.

CROPS.

Detailed information will be found regarding the important crops grown in the chapter on Agriculture. The district on the whole has very favourable soil and climatic conditions for the growing of crops and fruits. Briefly it may be mentioned that Hajipur subdivision has lighter soil and lower rainfall than the two other subdivisions of the district, namely, Sadar and Sitamarhi. In the Sadar subdivision. some areas have the same kind of soil as in Hajipur while we find heavy clay in other areas. The areas with light soil and fair rainfall are specially suitable for the cultivation of fruit trees. Various kinds of plantains, mangoes, litchis, guavas and limes are grown in abundance Horticulture has a future in this district. Hajipur particularly seems a good area for garden-farming combined with dairy and poultry. The produce will have a ready market in Patna

Paddy, maize, wheat. barley, *arhar*, *khesari*, sweet-potato, tobacco and sugarcane are the important crops of the district. Sitamarhi subdivision with heavier rainfall and more clayey soil has better prospects for paddy.

Mixed cropping is quite common. Wheat or barley is sown with mustard, linseed, *masur* or gram. The other type of mixed cropping is where two or more crops maturing in different periods are sown together. Maize is sown with sugarcane and *arhar*. Maize crop is reaped after about two and a half months while *arhar* and sugarcane keep the land engaged for almost the whole of the year. This type of cultivation reduces the cost, assures two crops in the year and does not affect the yield of either crop.

Unfortunately, the fruits grown in Muzaffarpur could have had a better market. Litchis and mangoes are assured a very good market in any part of India and even beyond but quicker transhipment is required. For a couple of years, litchis used to be air-lifted to Calcutta. The bottleneck of transhipment at Mokameh Ghat or Sonepur and Paleza Ghat affects the fruit trade badly. The opening of the Ganga bridge at Mokameh Ghat is expected to have a better effect on fruit trade. Incidentally, it may be mentioned that there is a great future for proper canning of fruits like mangoes and litchis. This industry was taken up decades before by a pioneer in Muzaffarpur but it had to close down.

Sugarcane and tobacco are the two important cash crops. Raw tobacco is consumed locally. Besides supplying the local market,

the district exports large quantities of tobacco to Patna, Gaya and Monghyr districts in the province. Muzaffarpur also exports tobacco to Calcutta. The variety of tobacco produced is good for chewing and also for making cigarettes. There are three sugar mills in the district at Goroul, Motipur and Belsand. A large quantity of sugarcane is also used for making into *gur*. Potato on a large scale has not yet been properly tried.

CONDITION OF CULTIVATION.

Except in a few cases, small scale cultivation with old type appliances continues. The growing density of population and the fragmentation of land due to the laws of succession stand on the way of any large scale cultivation, consolidation of holdings or the use of modern appliances like tractors. The efforts of the State Government have been partially successful in introducing some improvements in the method of cultivation. Some improved variety of cattle and better type of ploughs are being introduced. The use of organic manure is common but the use of inorganic manure has not yet been popular.

As the agricultural economy absolutely depends on the rainfall which is variable, provision of irrigational facilities is being encouraged. The district also suffers occasionally from an excess of rainfall. Drainage of the extensive *chaurs* will be of some value to this district. But a mass drainage of the *chaurs* for cultivation purposes will not be good as the *chaurs* are also pasture grounds and supply thatching grass. Periods of drought are also quite common.

Another form which the excessive supply of water takes in some part of the district is the annual visitation of floods. Portions of Sheohar, Belsand, Punisaidpur, Majorganj, Sitamarhi, Sonbarsa, Bairagnia, Pupri thanas in Sitamarhi subdivision, Sakra, Muzaffarpur Baruraj, Katra Kanti, Minapur thanas in the Sadar subdivision and Raghopur and Mahanar thanas in Hajipur subdivision suffer from annual floods from the rivers Bagmati, Gandak and Ganga respectively. The floods damage the standing crops over a large area and hundreds of houses and also bring in epidemics. Steps are being taken by the State Government to control the floods of these rivers and to utilise their water for irrigation purposes. When this is done, the health and the economic condition of the people would immensely improve. The chapter on Natural Calamities gives more details.

LARGE FARMS.

Muzaffarpur is one of the districts in Bihar which still have got some large farms. These are the legacy of the old indigo plantations. European method of cultivation and manufacture of indigo had started in the district near about 1785 although there is evidence to show that there used to be some cultivation of indigo even before the advent of the British here. On account of the encouragement and special

favours to the European planters in the hands of the administration, the plantations and factories grew in number and size. They were able to create large plantations, at times covering thousands of acres or even more. During the whole of the 19th century and the first two decades of the 20th century, the planters were a powerful force in the district both economically and politically.

The development of the artificial dyes affected the prosperity of indigo industry severely. The plantations had grown at the cost of a certain amount of exploitation of the smaller cultivators. The degree of exploitation increased along with lesser consumption of indigo due to competition from the artificial product. The political agitation of Mahatma Gandhi in 1917 against the oppression of the indigo planters tolled the knell of the industry.

The planters exercised a very big influence on the economic condition of the district. On the one hand, they saw to the maintenance of good roads for the transport of their indigo and for keeping up their social contacts, for going to the schools for the tenants and also to encourage the improvement of crops. Their farms were a sort of model to the surrounding area. They were also the bankers of their tenants and the agriculturists who brought them indigo. Exercising a good deal of influence on the administration (at one time they had the privilege to draw money from the Government treasury on their own), they could do a good deal to ameliorate the condition of those villages in which they were interested. In case of epidemics or near famine conditions, the planters would get remedial measures quickly taken, if they were interested in those areas.

The planters gave employment to a sizable percentage of the population. They encouraged the *melas* and fairs and frequently held socials, races, and polo meets. They kept horses and very good type of livestock. The Sonepur *mela* in the days of the planters attracted commodities and traders from the North-West Frontier Province to the south. The old documents show that practically all the first rate European firms of Calcutta and Lucknow used to open their branches at Sonepur fair. The turn-over of the commodities which included luxury goods besides livestock was enormous. When we remember that the state of communications was much less developed we realise the great significance of these *melas* and fairs which were definitely encouraged by the planters.

But, unfortunately, there was an opposite side also. The planters usually depended on their subordinate staff (*amlas*) and they were rather oppressive. A large number of *abwabs* or illegal taxations came into vogue. The tenants were forced to cultivate indigo on the best part of the land whether it was economic or not. The *tinkathia* system under which the planters made it obligatory on the tenants to grow indigo on the portions of the land opened the flood gates of various types of oppression. It appears that the planters overlooked the *zulum* done by the subordinates and their close link with the

administrative set up reduced the tenants to a state of utter helplessness. There was a social and economic emasculation of the villages in certain ways. The revolt of the *raiyats* was natural.

The large farms of the planters who gradually liquidated themselves by sale of their farms were purchased by rich agriculturists of the district or of the neighbouring districts. Unfortunately, the standard of cultivation has not been maintained in most cases. The indigo plantations had been substituted by sugarcane and oat plantations. Oat plantations, however, died out when the Pusa horse farm closed. Some of the old plantations like Kanti, Motipur and Daudpur, are now growing sugarcane extensively. Kanti concern is one of the oldest indigo concerns in North Bihar and continues to be in the hands of an enlightened gentleman-farmer of a well-known family of Calcutta. The Motipur indigo concern is now in the hands of Motipur Sugar Factory. Excepting in these two cases, the other big farms have been broken up into pieces and sold or leased out to different individuals.

The use of the modern tractors is limited to the big farms and sugarcane plantations. The rubber-tyre bullock carts introduced by the planters have not yet made much headway.

POPULATION.

It may be briefly mentioned here that the total population of the district according to 1951 Census is 35,20,739. There is an excess of 5?,239 females over males. The urban population consisting of 1,35,696 persons forms a small percentage of the total population. Although the percentage of urban population is small, there is a definite swing of the intelligentsia going over to the urban areas from the villages. There are no big industries in the towns and that also explains partially the low percentage of urban population. 90.5 per cent of the population for the district depends on cultivation.

The people living in the municipal areas of the district mostly have non-agricultural occupation. About 35 per cent of the town dwellers carry on cultivation or work as agricultural labourers. Similarly there are some people in the villages who live only by some craft. Usually even the craftsmen in the villages have some land, or occupy themselves in agricultural work during a part of the year. If both these exceptions are omitted we find that about 90 per cent of the population is dependent on agriculture. We do not know how many persons of the district live in the urban areas outside the district or have no agricultural occupation outside the district. At a liberal estimate we can put this category of people at about 3 per cent of the total population. There will also be some scope of migration or seasonal migration of labour. But that will be negligible.

The total cultivated land area of the district comes to 15,11,261 acres. 90 per cent of the total population of the district is roughly 31,64,918. The cultivated land area gives less than half an acre per

head of the population depending on land. The incidence of poverty of the people, therefore, becomes self-evident. Even under the best conditions agriculture cannot provide a living standard for such large numbers. Economic pressure is driving people to move from the rural areas in the district or find alternative employment such as hawking and pulling of rickshaws in the towns. Rickshaw fare is probably the lowest at Muzaffarpur in the whole of the State. A very large number of rickshaw-pullers at Patna are inhabitants of Muzaffarpur. This is not accidental.

INDUSTRIES AND LABOUR.

Muzaffarpur being the headquarters of the Tirhut Division which is cut off from South Bihar by the river Ganga has its own significance in a wide scope for assembling industries with a large closed market. The existence of a number of sugar factories in North Bihar assures a certain amount of machine repairing work as well. It may be mentioned here that Messrs. Arthur Butler and Co. Ltd., of Muzaffarpur, is now at least 110 years old. Along with Saran Engineering Works in Saran district, this concern has been engaged in the manufacture of implements, etc., for the needs of North Bihar. Even with the opening of the Ganga bridge at Mokameh Ghat it is not expected that there will be a diminution for the scope for assembling industry for Muzaffarpur town.

Although essentially an agricultural district there was some development towards industrialisation during the Great War of 1914-18. This was evidently out of the necessity felt for the turn-over in goods which could not be imported from foreign countries. Commerce and trade flourished for some time and a capital was built up for reinvestment in certain types of industries. The flourish in trade and commerce was however, short lived and the third decade of the 20th century saw a depression in trades. But during the Second Great World War, the various indigenous industries of the district and particularly the industry of manufacture of cutlery and iron goods received a great encouragement.

There are 135 factories registered under the Factories Act. They are distributed as follows :—

Sugar	3
Engineering	4
Rice, oil, flour and *dal*	85
Miscellaneous	43

As already mentioned, sugar manufacture could be described as the main industry in this district. The three sugar factories are located one in each of the three respective subdivisions. The location of the sugar factories in all the three cases is outside urban influence. It has already been mentioned that the sugar factories are in a way the legacy of the indigo planters. Under the Welfare State, facilities

have been offered for ameliorating the condition of the labour in these factories. There is no dearth of labour in any of these factories. Unskilled labour force is mainly supplied to these factories out of surplus rural population in the district.

The minimum wages in the industry have been increased from about Rs. 10 per month in 1930—32 to Rs. 55 in 1948-49. The same incidence of wages continues with slight changes. The minimum wages had decreased from about Rs. 10 to Rs. 6 in 1936-37 and again increased to Rs. 11 in 1939-40. It may be said that no other industry has perhaps reacted so favourably to the demands of labour. There have been, from time to time, legislations affecting the growers, societies, factories and the labour. The sugarcane cess that is realised is spent for the good of the industry as an item of the welfare fund. The recruitment of the skilled percentage of the hands does not admit of any regional limits.

The industry is a seasonal one and, therefore, employment is partly seasonal and partly permanent. Seasonal labour consists largely of unskilled workmen, while some technical men, such as, fitters, drivers, juice supervisors, chemists are not employed throughout the year but are allowed a retaining allowance for the off season. No retainership is, however, allowed to unskilled labour. As the unskilled labour comes mostly from the rural areas who are more dependent on agriculture or industries associated with agriculture, it cannot be said that much hardship is caused by their discharge. There is no specific rule laid down for regulating the method of recruitment but according to the unanimous decision of bi-partite conference of Labour Advisory Board (Central) and Bihar in 1951 seasonal employees have been given the right of re employment.

There are 5 fairly large engineering workshops Welfare facilities to the workers in these engineering workshops are in conformity with the minimum existing in the sugar factories. The district being mostly a paddy producing area, a large number of rice mills for husking paddy have been set up. Most of these rice mills are located in the northern part of the district, i.e , Sitamarhi subdivision and very close to the Nepal frontiers. Paddy husking is a seasonal industry and therefore to keep the mills going the employers have attached *dal* and flour sections to it. The labour force in this industry mostly hails from the agriculture population. They are usually daily-rated or casual. They work in these mills when the harvesting or sowing season is over. This tendency makes the labour force in these mills rather fluctuating and does not help a proper organisation or modernisation. The minimum wage in this district is Rs. 1-6-0 per day per worker. Muzaffarpur district has a future for the industry of assembling parts

One of the important recent phases which should affect the economic condition of the people is the availability of electricity in many of the rural areas. Electricity has now been made available in

the important parts of the two mofussil subdivisions, Sitamarhi and Hajipur. It is expected that in the near future, the availability of the electricity will lead to the development of industries within the district. The Pontoon bridge connecting Hajipur with Sonepur and the opening of the new Sonepur bridge are also factors that will help trade and commerce. Without a mixed economy, there cannot be much improvement in the economic standard in the district.

The present agrarian policy of the State Government in Bihar follows closely the agrarian programme drawn up for India. The Congress election manifesto of 1946 had definitely mentioned that there should be reform of the land system involving the removal of the intermediaries between the peasant and the State. It was further mentioned that while individual farming or peasant proprietorship should continue, progressive agriculture as well as the creation of new social values and incentives require some system of co-operative farming. The manifesto had further indicated that in the development of land and industry, there has to be a proper integration and balance between rural and urban economy.

The implementation of this policy has been taken up and as mentioned before, the abolition of zamindari is one of the main steps taken. But before the abolition of zamindari in 1950, other steps had been taken which were calculated to improve the economic condition of *raiyats*. Various amendments and reforms in the tenancy laws had been taken up after 1947. They broadly embody the following provisions :—

(*i*) if any settled *raiyat* of the village cultivates any *bakast* land of the landlord, he will immediately get occupancy status;

(*ii*) in settling *bakast* lands the landlords should give preference to persons residing in the village or in the neighbouring villages; the rent must not exceed 10 per cent of the average village rate and the *salami* should not exceed ten times the rental;

(*iii*) occupancy tenants have been given full rights of excavating tanks and wells and of constructing buildings on their lands for their own use and also for religious and charitable purposes;

(*iv*) tenants have been given full rights over trees in their holdings for which they pay cash rent including the trees which were previously recorded in the names of the landlords;

(*v*) tenants can send rents by postal money order; and

(*vi*) it has been made incumbent on the landlord to furnish a full account of the rent payment to the *raiyat* failing which he will be liable for penalty.

Apart from these, some other tenancy measures were taken like the Bihar Bakast Disputes Settlement Act, 1947, and the Bihar

Privileged Persons Homestead Tenancy Act, 1947. All these measures have no doubt gone to improve the economic condition of the cultivator.

There has been an over-all attempt to improve the agricultural income per head. According to a study of the Director of Economics and Statistics, Bihar, the agricultural income per head of the agricultural population, as comprised in the agricultural classes given in the 1951 Census, is as follows :—

TABLE.

District.	Population belonging to the agricultural classes (in lakhs).	Number of persons of the agricultural classes per acre of net area sown.	Aggregate value of agricultural produce (in lakhs of rupees).	Gross agricultural income per head of the agricultural population.
				Rs.
Patna	18.7	1.9	1,372.7	73.3
Gaya	25.6	1.3	1,426.2	55.8
Shahabad ..	22.4	1.3	2,239.5	100.1
Saran	28.6	2.3	1,375.0	48.0
Champaran ..	23.6	1.6	1,322.0	56.0
Muzaffarpur ..	31.9	2.1	1,563 8	40.1
Darbhanga ..	33.6	2.1	1,582.2	47.1
Bhagalpur ..	23.8	1.5	2,089.9	87.7
Monghyr ..	23.5	1.4	1.151.6	49.0
Purnea	22.3	1.4	2,466.9	110.4
Santhal Parganas ..	21.3	1.2	1,428.5	67.0
Ranchi	16.7	0.9	1,533.6	92.0
Palamau ..	9.0	1.4	711.4	79.2
Hazaribagh .	16.5	1.5	827.1	50.1
Manbhum ..	17.5	1.7	1,921.8	109.5
Singhbhum ..	11.1	1.7	832.3	75.1
Bihar ..	346.1	1.6	23,844.6	68.9

The above table would give a picture of the plight of the peasantry in Muzaffarpur district along with that of the other districts in Bihar and Bihar as a whole.

It is rather premature to make an objective appraisal of the actual effects of the abolition of the zamindari on the tenants. But it is not difficult to guess that due to the steps taken to do away with the intermediaries between the State and the peasantry and with certain amount of industrialisation, improvement of agriculture and improvement of communications the economic condition of the people is likely to be better.

CHAPTER V.

AGRICULTURE, LIVESTOCK AND IRRIGATION.

Muzaffarpur district is an alluvial fertile tract divided into three natural divisions by the rivers Baghmati and the Burhi Gandak. The tract lying north of the river Burhi Gandak contains the most fertile land in the district. The other tracts are good paddy lands.

NATURAL CONFIGURATION.

The tracts lying south of the Burhi Gandak comprise of three different natural portions, namely,—

(1) The area between the spill channel of the Gogra on the north and the Ganga on the south. Part of it is covered by low-lying lands fertilized yearly by the silt deposits of the Ganga.

(2) The area between the Gogra and the Baya, a tract closely resembling that just mentioned. It contains some low-lying marshes.

(3) The tract between the Burhi Gandak and the Baya, a vast stretch of upland broken by numerous shallow depressions and towards the north by a succession of horse shoe-shaped lakes left by the old beds of the Burhi Gandak.

The tract to the north of the Baghmati up to the frontier of Nepal can roughly be subdivided into the following four portions:—

(1) The *doab* between the Lal 'Bakaya and the Baghmati, a stretch of low-lying land, subject to inundations, and yielding mainly paddy.

(2) The area between the Baghmati and the Lakhandei except in the north-east where the land is very low and marshy. The greater portion of this part of the country consists of a slightly undulating low land subject to inundations from the Baghmati and its old channels, from the Kola and the Lakhandei. But as the surplus water is quickly drained off by these rivers, the soil is, as a rule, not water-logged.

(3) The belt of country between the Adhwara and the Lakhandei. The northern portion of this tract is exceedingly damp and formed the most unhealthy portion of the district. The remainder is a stretch of undulating upland with marshy land here and there, especially towards the east, where there are some extensive *chaurs*.

(4) The rich plain bounded on the north and east by Nepal and on the south and west by the river Adhwara. The northern portion of this tract which is known as the Panch Mahalas from its containing the five *parganas* of

Nagra, Dilwarpur, Pariharpur, Laduari and Bahadurpur is perhaps the best paddy-producing tract in Tirhut. It is intersected by a series of mountain streams silt of which fertilizes the soil. The level plain is rich in crops, mango groves and clusters of bamboos.

SOIL.

The soil is alluvial and is grouped under four heads, namely,—*balsundari* (sandy loam), *matiyari* (clayey), *bangar* (a clay soil lighter than the latter containing an admixture of sand), and lastly, the patches of *usar* (containing the salt efflorescene called *reh*) which are found scattered all over the district. Paddy is grown chiefly on *matiyari* soil. Good *rabi* crops grow luxuriantly on *balsundari* soil. The autumn paddy crop also thrives on it. Indigo flourished in *balsundari* and also in *bangar*. *Balsundari* predominates in south of the Burhi Gandak, while in the north *bangar* and *matiyari* and in the west *usar* are distributed in patches.

RAINFALL.

In some of the northern and eastern tracts of the district people are wholly dependent upon rainfall for their rice crop. In the absence of irrigation in Sitamarhi subdivision, heavy rain in June is necessary for both the autumn and winter paddy. If a dry period comes too soon the autumn seedlings get burnt up by the sun and never recover. The August rainfall must be steady for the paddy crop. Good rain in June and July is also essential for preparing the nurseries. But a dry spell is wanted towards the end of August to ripen the grain. For sowing *rabi* rain is necessary either in the end of September or beginning of October along with the approaching cold (For details see the Chapter on Climate and Rainfall and Statistical Appendix.)

AGRICULTURAL STATISTICS.

At the time the last District Gazetteer was compiled in 1907, out of a total area of 3,035 square miles 80 per cent of lands were cultivated in the district, and 605 square miles or 20 per cent were uncultivated. At present 84 per cent of the lands are cultivated and 16 per cent are uncultivated.

The total area cropped in all the three harvests in 1907 was 22,78,300 acres of which 72,300 acres were returned as *dofasli* or twice-cropped, and the net cropped area was 15,55,300 acres or 80 per cent of the total area as against 19,42,400 acres in 1911-12 of which the net area cropped more than once in 1911-12 was 10,18,500 acres. At present the total cropped area in all the three harvests is 23,19,600 acres of which 6,92,600 acres are returned as twice-cropped; and the net cropped area is 16,27,000 acres or 84 per cent of the total area of the district. The proportion sown with *bhadai* is 30 per cent, *aghani* 66 per cent and that sown with *rabi* 76 per cent of the net cropped area, the proportion of twice-cropped being 40 per cent.

The proportion of these crops sown, viz., *bhadai*, *aghani* and *rabi* has undergone some changes since 1907. At that time the proportion sown with *bhadai* was 38 per cent of the net cropped area, that sown with *aghani* 48 per cent and that sown with *rabi* 60 per cent.

PRINCIPAL CROPS.

In the south *bhadai* and *rabi* crops of a superior kind dominate whereas *aghani* and common *rabi* are grown in the north and thus nearly half of the total cultivated area of the district yields two crops a year. The thanas having the largest area under *aghani* also return *rabi* of which *khesari* is the main cash crop. The southern portion of the district is more suited for *bhadai* crops where *rabi* is also grown. Good *rabi* and good *bhadai* go hand in hand. Such area is in the south of the district which is more suited for the production of *bhadai* crops.

FOOD CROPS.

Altogether 88.5 per cent of the net cropped area is occupied by food crops. The northern thanas have 91 per cent of their area under these crops while the southern thanas have not more than 87.34 per cent and if the *diara* lands are also included, it is 81.15 per cent. Paddy is grown in about 6,45,700 acres as against 7,67,800 acres as mentioned in the last District Gazetteer and 7,55,300 acres in 1911-12. There appears to be a decrease in the area under paddy cultivation.

The area under other food crops is about 8,29,100 acres including pulses such as *khesari* which is largely grown in paddy lands when the rice crop is cut. The area under other food crops including pulses in 1911-12 was 4,67,900 acres. Paddy is the staple food crop grown in the northern thanas, varying from 63.35 per cent of the net cropped area in Katra to over 73 per cent in Belsand and Sitamarhi thanas. In the southern thanas its proportion is small varying from 35 per cent in Paru to 23 per cent in Hajipur. But even in this area it is more extensively grown than any other single crop.

Rice.

No less than 80 different kinds of paddy are grown in Muzaffarpur district. Of the total area under paddy about 5,92,600 acres are under winter paddy, about 53,000 acres under autumn and only about 100 acres under early paddy as against about 6,58,600 (*aghani*) and 1,09,200 (*bhadai*) acres respectively. O'Malley mentioned in the last District Gazetteer that only about 14.20 per cent of the total area was under early paddy.

The proportion of *bhadai* paddy is lowest in the southern thanas varying from 4 per cent in Muzaffarpur to 1 per cent in Paru and largest in the northern thanas even up to 21.29 per cent in Katra. Some improved varieties of paddy have been introduced.

Transplantation and Broadcasting.

Out of the two methods, viz., broadcast and transplantation, the latter is the commoner which is sown first broadcast on lands previously ploughed and made ready and then transplanted in rows in the puddles and flooded fields.

Broadcast cultivation is practised for the early paddy for which sowing takes place from February to June. For *bhadai*, it is sown in June or July and is regarded as 60-day crop as it is reaped in August or September. The long stemmed *aghani* rice is grown broadcast only on very low land and occupies a small area. But this kind of paddy attains a height of 16 feet and grows with the rising water level.

OTHER FOODGRAINS.

The greater part of the area under other foodgrains is under *khesari*, which is a *rabi* crop sown in rice lands while the paddy straw is standing. Of the remainder, the pulses called *arhar* occupies the largest portion and is followed by the millets called *kodo* and *china* (*Panieum millacum*), the pulses called *mung* (*Phaseolus mungo*) and *urid* and other crops such as *masoor*, *janera*, peas and oats. Some of these foodgrains are *bhadai* and some *rabi* but both are sown mixed with other crops.

Barley.

This crop is now raised on 2,25,200 acres of land as against 19 per cent mentioned by O'Malley which comes to 2,95,507 acres. Though common to nearly all parts of the district, it is most extensively grown in the central portion. It is commonly sown as a second crop on fields which have already borne a *bhadai* crop New improved varieties of barley have been introduced by the State Agricultural Department.

Maize.

The cultivation of maize which comes next to barley was being done on 1,63,760 acres of land as mentioned in the last District Gazetteer which had increased to 1,94,400 acres in 1911-12. The present acreage of maize is 1,53,800. In none of the northern thanas it covers more than 5 per cent of the net cropped area, whereas in none of the southern thanas does it occupy less than 13 per cent. Pupri with 2 per cent returns the smallest and Hajipur with 21 per cent returns the largest area under this crop.

Marua.

O'Malley mentioned 82,450 acres under this crop whereas in 1911-12 it was 83,700 acres, the present acreage being 40,500. *Marua* is harvested in September. It is most common in Pupri where it accounts for 15 per cent of the net cropped area.

Wheat.

Its acreage mentioned by O'Malley was 69,700 while in 1911-12 it rose to 90,000 which has now grown to 1,30,500 and is an important *rabi* crop after barley. But the soil of the district is not suited to it. It is mostly grown on the *diara* lands.

Gram.

The acreage under gram as O'Malley has mentioned was 43,800. In 1911-12 it was cultivated with a very slight decrease on 43,500 acres. But the present acreage under this crop has gone up to 1,33,300. It is grown as a second crop to winter rice and is produced most extensively in the northern thanas. Some improved variety of gram has been introduced by the State Agriculture Department.

NON-FOOD CROPS.

Non-food crops were grown at the time of the compilation of the last District Gazetteer on 11.50 per cent of the net cropped area which comes to 1,78,299 acres It decreased to 1,41,800 acres in 1911-12 and now the non-food crops including garden produce and orchards occupy 1,08,200 acres of land. The decrease in the non-food crops is due to the food shortage which has made its cultivation very limited.

Sugarcane.

Sugarcane is the most important cash crop of the district and its acreage is on the increase. It is planted during February or March. The ratoons are placed two feet apart and have to be well watered. It is ready for cutting in January or February. There is a Central Sugarcane Research Station at Pusa in Darbhanga district for sugarcane research and development. A number of improved varieties of sugarcane have been introduced by the State Agriculture Department.

The acreage under sugarcane in 1904-05 was nearly 10,000 which rose to 12,000 in 1911-12. The present acreage under this crop is 73,744. There are now three sugarcane mills in this district at Goroul, Riga and Motipur. Three sugar factories outside this district draw some sugarcanes from this district.

It may be mentioned here that the cultivation of sugarcane has received a great encouragement after the decline of indigo and oat cultivation which died out in the twenties of this century owing to economic reasons The expansion of the acreage under the sugarcane crop in spite of the hard labour on the part of the cultivator and the exhaustion of the soil by its cultivation is a significant economic factor. This is so because of the ready money sugarcane brings. Expansion of this acreage is possible only at the cost of other food crops.

Oil-seeds.

Their area as mentioned in the last District Gazetteer was 55,000 acres of which 41,000 acres were under linseed. The total area under

these crops rose to 1,78,500 acres in 1911-12 of which 1,07,900 acres were under linseed alone. Oil-seeds now occupy 62,300 acres of which 29,200 acres are under linseed and the remainder under other oil-seeds. The other oil-seeds are sown singly but the linseed is usually mixed with barley, *khesari* and other *rabi* crops. Linseed is most commonly grown in the northern thanas of the district.

Tobacco.

In the last District Gazetteer the acreage under this commercial crop was mentioned as 17,400 acres. In 1911-12, the area under this crop was 17,500 acres and showed a very slight increase. Tobacco now occupies 52,700 acres. This substantial increase in acreage is due to its high price as a cash crop. Very good quality of tobacco is grown in Sakra police-station and in pargana Saraisa. There is a tobacco research station at Pusa which has considerably contributed to the improvement of this crop.

Other Crops.

The only other non-food crops requiring special mention are cotton and the thatching grass called *kharaul* which serves as fodder to the cattle and is used for thatching purposes. The area under non-food crop is going down due to the fact that under the Grow-More-Food Campaign larger impetus is being given to food crops. Chillies grow very well in parts of this district.

EXTENSION OF CULTIVATION.

In 1943, the extension of cultivation work was taken up under the Grow-More-Food Campaign. Various schemes for increased production of crops and reclamation of waste lands and intensive cultivation have been introduced which have met with some success and evoked co-operation of the farmers. The Agriculture Department has done much to maintain the fertility of lands by supply of manure to the lands which do not remain fallow even for one year.

IMPROVED METHODS OF CULTIVATION.

In the wake of Grow-More-Food Campaign improved methods for better cultivation have been introduced, i.e., by following cropping pattern, use of improved implement and green manures such as *sanai* for uplands and *dhaincha* for low lands. Crop rotation has been popularised. Rural compost making, started in the villages, has fed the under-nourished lands and kept the villages clean. The use of cow-dung for fuel has been replaced by the quick-growing trees due to the endeavour of the Agriculture Department. The low-lying lands in which only *khesari* could be broadcast have been drained and brought under the cultivation of wheat, peas and barley. In Hajipur area specially the cultivation has been much modernised and the cultivation of potatoes, bananas and cauliflowers has gone up in standard. The cultivators are advised by the Agriculture Department to practise

three or four years' rotation of crop which with green manuring is giving increased production and the fertility of the soil is preserved. Introduction of good grafts has helped the growers in growing better varieties of fruits. The cultivators are getting the advantages of the improved methods of cultivation. There is one District Agricultural Officer for the district and one Grow-More-Food Officer for each subdivision with Agricultural Inspectors, Engineering Supervisors, Overseers, etc., of the Agriculture Department to help and guide the farmers.

There are seven intensive cultivation blocks each of 10,000 acres or above in the charge of this Department which supervise the agricultural operations on systematic lines and help the farmers in their agricultural necessities. A number of demonstrations are given in these blocks to enlighten the agriculturists with scientific and improved methods. Mobile plant protection staff helps to fight out the pests.

LIVESTOCK : LIVESTOCK POPULATION.

The livestock position in 1951 as compared with the position in 1945 is as follows :—

——	1945.	1951.	Variation.
Cattle	6,79,364	7,83,844	+1,04,480
Buffaloes	2,10,801	2,02,770	—8,031
Sheep	10,823	10,188	—635
Goats	2,78,537	4,23,634	+1,45,097
Poultry	1,09,021	1,45,182	+36,161
Horses	Not available	8,549	
Donkeys	Ditto	7,087	
Mules	Ditto	50	
Camels	Ditto	49	
Pigs	Ditto	12,405	

These statistics disclose a decrease in the population of buffaloes and sheep, which is mainly due to the area being heavily affected by liver fluke and parasitic infestation in adult sheep. These diseases are common in water-logged areas. The increase in poultry may be due to the absence of contagious diseases such as *ranikhet*. Definitely more people are taking to poultry rearing as a subsidiary occupation. Poultry from Muzaffarpur has a ready market in Calcutta, Patna and other places. A large percentage of buffaloes is exported to deficit areas. The villagers are now keeping more goats to supplement their income.

FODDER.

No special fodder or grass is grown for feeding the cattle. Straw from the paddy and the leaves of maize and sugarcane supply fodder. Except for a few *chaurs* there is not much grazing ground. The work of growing fodder in the villages has also been taken up and for this purpose cuttings of elephant grass, barseem seeds and seeds of napier grass are supplied free.

Buffaloes requiring lesser attention for maintenance are the chief source of milk supply and dairy products. The soil is softer than that of South Bihar and he-buffaloes are not engaged in ploughing as substitute for bullocks.

CATTLE FAIRS.

The very heavy pressure on land leads to a potential market for goods which asserts itself by the holding of annual *melas* and fairs. Practically in all the *melas* and fairs some cattle are sold. But there are also a few purely cattle fairs. The more important cattle fairs are held at Sitamarhi, Susta, Bhairo Asthan, Kafin, Jaitpur and Hardi. There is a large turnover of cattle in these *melas* in spite of indifferent means of communication for some of them. Cattle shows are organized in these fairs and prizes in cash or kind are awarded with a view to encourage the local breeders.

GENERAL CONDITION AND INCIDENCE OF DISEASES.

The general condition of livestock is moderately fair. Black quarter, Haemorrhagic septicaemia and Foot and Mouth diseases are the common cattle contagious diseases prevalent. Liver fluke infestation in areas surrounding the *chaurs* is common.

In 1950-51 total number of outbreaks of various contagious diseases was 116 with 1,975 seizures and 267 deaths as compared to 39 outbreaks with 239 seizures and 100 deaths during 1951-52. The most regular means for obtaining information regarding outbreak of diseases is the village chaukidar. For this purpose the police, village co-operative societies and village *panchayats* are also important agencies. Criminal poisoning of cattle by arsenic, *dhatura*, *madar* and *kanail* is not frequent.

VETERINARY AID.

A veterinary hospital was established at Muzaffarpur in 1899. Four veterinary hospitals, namely, at Muzaffarpur, Maniari, Sitamarhi and Hajipur are now functioning together with eight veterinary dispensaries at other places. The hospitals give treatment to out-patients and in-patients whereas the dispensaries treat only the out-patients. During the year 1950-51, 455 in-patients and 9,598 out-patients were treated, while in the year 1951-52, 522 in-patients and 9,738 out-patients were treated in the veterinary hospitals. In the

dispensaries, the number of patients treated was 12,187 during the year 1950-51 and 15,580 during the year 1951-52.

Treatment, prevention and suppression of diseases of livestock are the main functions of such veterinary institutions. Serum inoculation in mass scale is the only method at present employed to minimise the death-roll in case of an outbreak and it has proved effective.

BREEDING.

Regular breeding operations have not been attempted and only a few stud bulls are being maintained at the veterinary institutions for this purpose. The State Government have planned arrangements for artificial insemination.

GOSHALAS.

There are *goshalas* at Muzaffarpur, Sitamarhi, Bairagnia and Hajipur. Stud bulls have been supplied to these *goshalas*.

IRRIGATION.

There are three fundamental factors which are common to Tirhut Division and fully apply to the district of Muzaffarpur. They are: (1) increased density of population towards the west, (2) decrease in rainfall towards the west, and (3) the slope of the ground from north-west to south-east governing the flow of flood water. These factors have great influence on the agricultural economy of the district of Muzaffarpur. Any scheme for providing irrigation facilities for this district will have to be drawn up with reference to these factors.

The soils of the district of Muzaffarpur are capable of retaining moisture. There is sufficient rain during the rainy seasons ranging from 23.71 inches to 46.12 inches. It is, accordingly, one of the most fertile districts in Bihar. Formerly the cultivators did not find it necessary to obtain water for the fields from large irrigation works. As mentioned in the last District Gazetteer, only 30,000 acres or 2 per cent of the net cropped area was under irrigation. In the Census of 1911, the percentage of gross cultivated area which was under irrigation was 1.8. But on account of low production of food crops, deficit in food-grains and the increasing density of population, the necessity of having assured irrigation was badly felt.

The greater part of the irrigation is done by means of wells which cater for about 70 per cent of the irrigated area. Under the Grow-More-Food Campaign, 1,377 wells on a 50 per cent subsidy have been constructed. It has to be mentioned here that irrigation by wells is common only in the south. In the northern parts, the number of wells is limited as the land is low and subject to floods. In this area, rivers and tanks are the chief sources of water supply. The Adhwara, the Gandak, the Baya, the Purandhar, the Baghmati, the Lakhandei

and the Mahuara are the main rivers used for irrigation purpose. *Pynes* or irrigation channels leading from the banks of the rivers are also constructed. Many ponds and tanks have been completed and pumping sets have been given to the cultivators on a 50 per cent subsidy.

The necessity of irrigation by canals and other means was never felt acutely except during the famine years. The failure of crops in 1896 stressed the need for assured irrigation in the district of Muzaffarpur along with Saran and Champaran districts; and in 1897, the Champaran Canal Survey Division was formed for preparation of detailed plans and estimates for this project. As famine relief measure, earth work involving an expenditure of Rs. 5 to 6 crores was done in subsequent years. Later, the Tribeni Canal System was completed in 1911. This system does not help Muzaffarpur district.

The necessity of a more comprehensive irrigational system led to the creation of the Gandak Circle in 1948 with one Superintending Engineer and some Assistant Engineers in the initial stage for survey and investigation of the Gandak project.

The urgency of executing the Gandak project was felt after the Second World War when the general food situation deteriorated considerably aggravated by the partition of the country. Dr. Rajendra Prasad (then Minister In-charge of Food and Agriculture, Government of India) requested the Government of Bihar in 1947 to investigate the possibility of opening out canals. The canals will be both on eastern and western sides of the Gandak. Muzaffarpur district will be irrigated from the eastern canal.

The State Government of Bihar have opened power houses at Hajipur, Bairagnia and Sitamarhi. The North Bihar Tube-well Division has been set up for the construction of tube-wells to be operated by electricity that has now been made available. Tube-wells set up in this district are usually 300 to 400 feet deep. Each tube-well is designed to discharge about 33,000 gallons of water per hour.

The use of power for drawing water from ordinary wells has not been given a fair trial yet.

Further details about Irrigation will be found in the chapter under Natural Calamities.

CHAPTER VI.

OCCUPATION, MANUFACTURE AND TRADE.

Muzaffarpur is mainly an agricultural district with about 90 per cent of its population engaged in agriculture. The main industries and trade are also associated with agriculture. As mentioned in the last District Gazetteer of Muzaffarpur by O'Malley (1907) the main industries in the district were indigo, sugar and saltpetre manufacture. There were only two factories registered under the Factories Act, namely, the sugar factory at Ottur which gave employment to a daily average of 165 persons and the Engineering workshops of Messrs Arthur Butler and Co. at Muzaffarpur with a daily average of 107 employees. The other industries were of smaller importance and consisted of small village handicrafts. The position of indigo manufacture was very important at that time and a special chapter on the indigo industry forms a part of the old District Gazetteer.* The picture now is very different. The manufacture of indigo and saltpetre has disappeared as an industry.

Agricultural Labourers.

According to the Census Tables of 1951, the statistics of agricultural labourers are as follows :—

Cultivating labourers and their dependents :

Males—5,77,304.

Females—6,19,366.

The cultivating labourers are distributed as follows :—

—	Self-supporting persons.	Non-earning dependents.	Earning dependents.
Males	2,76,702	2,73,966	26,636
Females	1,21,445	4,86,116	11,805

These agricultural labourers are engaged in the various processes of cultivation which include harvesting and threshing. The bulk of the landless labourers in the villages are employed. There are a number of agricultural farms in the district more important of which and with a historic background are Daudpur Farm and Kanti Farm. The number of workers engaged at these farms fluctuate between 40 to 100 every day. There is another farm called Bhikampur-Jhapha where yellow sugar was once produced. About 100 workmen are engaged in this farm every day.

Indigo and Saltpetre.

The reasons for the decline of the cultivation of indigo were several. The cultivation of indigo was in existence in Muzaffarpur district even before the advent of the British rule. But the cultivation was then on a small-scale farming basis. The European method of cultivation and manufacture of indigo appears to have been started near about 1785 and the first Collector of Muzaffarpur Mr. Francois

*Quoted in Enclosure II.

Grand* was actively associated with it. Since then on account of the encouragement and particular privileges granted to the European planters the indigo factories grew in number, size and importance. The planters were given administrative facilities to purchase out the smaller cultivators' best lands and to have consolidated blocks of the more fertile tracts, where they could grow large indigo plantation. Besides, they induced or forced the local cultivators to grow indigo on the best part of their land and sell it to them for manufacture in their factories. The European planters in the district were a dominating factor throughout the 19th century in North Bihar including Muzaffarpur district. The planters became a powerful force in the district both economically and politically.

But in the last quarter of the 19th century, the development of artificial dyes which were freely imported from abroad affected the prospect of the indigo industry severely. As the indigo manufacture in the district started losing the foreign market, the degree of exploitation and oppression on the cultivators increased. As it is, the cultivators did not get a fair deal. Even when the indigo industry was in a prosperous condition, the exploitation reached such a height that there were agitations and a mass awakening among the cultivators. In the years 1907 to 1910 there were agitations in the neighbouring district of Champaran against the indigo cultivation as a result of which certain concessions in prices had been given. But the political agitation against indigo cultivation started by Mahatma Gandhi in 1917 had far-reaching effects. The agitation was started in Champaran district as a result of which there was an Enquiry Committee with Gandhiji as one of the members and there were definite recommendations so far as indigo cultivation was concerned. A special Act was passed to implement these recommendations. This growth of political consciousness removed some of the worst defects of the system and the planters found that the cultivation and manufacture of indigo were no longer profitable. The competition from artificial dyes had not abated and indigo died a natural death. The European planters started selling their farms which were purchased by well placed Indians and the farms were converted into agricultural concerns. The last group of the European planters left on the eve of the Independence of the country in 1947. Those indigo concerns have converted themselves to sugarcane cultivation mostly.

Saltpetre was worked in Muzaffarpur and in the neighbouring districts of Saran, Champaran and Darbhanga. Bihar at one time was the chief source of saltpetre in India. Owing to the abundance of domestic animals there was more than sufficient supply of organic nitrogen in the soils around the villages. The humidity of Tirhut was exceedingly favourable for the growth of what are generally called nitrifying bacteria which convert ammonia by successive stages into

---

*Grand was the first designated Collector. Before him there was a European Supervisor. Grand's wife divorced and married Talleyrand.

nitrous and nitric acid. Wood and cow-dung which are generally used for fuel in each village form a regular nursery for the growth of potassium nitrate. In the usual period of continuous surface desiccation which follows a monsoon rainfall, the compound formed in the soil was brought to the surface by capillary action and appeared as a white efflorescence of dried salt which was collected by a particular caste called Nonias. These Nonias received advances from the zamindars who, in their turn, had contract with big merchants of Calcutta for the disposal of saltpetre purchased at low rate from poor Nonias. The manufacture of saltpetre was controlled by the Salt Department and was subject to the payment of duty.

Before the saltpetre became fit for the market, it was refined in the village refinery belonging to the zamindar who generally advanced money to the Nonias. The refining process was indigenous. The liquid was boiled and taken out of the pan and was placed in earthen vessels. After cooling for some hours it used to be taken out of the first vat and placed in other earthen vessels and allowed to cool for three days. The deposit was then strained through baskets and dried and the process was complete.

The decline of saltpetre was due firstly to the unfair treatment to the Nonias. The Nonias were not given their fair share of the profit and they did not put their best in the work. They were engaged on a very low rate of daily wages. The extraction was also hampered by restriction in the interest of salt revenue which made it economically wasteful. In order to protect himself from suspicion that he was making salt, the Nonia would return the refuse from the boiling pan to the crude saltpetre extracted before taking the latter for refinery. Owing to the first concentration not being carried to the best economic limit either 35 per cent of the total nitrate was sacrificed or recovered illicitly and probably 10 per cent was sacrificed.

In 1916 Mr. Morshead, the Commissioner of Tirhut Division, had reported that about 50 years ago Bihar used to produce about 25,000 tons of saltpetre annually. But partly owing to want of encouragement but mainly due to German competition the saltpetre industry steadily declined and in 1915 the production of saltpetre in Bihar was considerably less than 10,000 tons. Germany succeeded in capturing this important trade and in 1913 India only supplied one-third of the needs of the United Kingdom, the remainder being furnished by Germany.

Mr. Morshead visualised that India would regain her position if the demand for saltpetre brought about by the First Great War continued. Before the War crude saltpetre in Bihar fetched from Rs. 1-8-0 to Rs. 3 a maund and the earnings of the Nonias varied from 4 annas to 6 annas a day. The price of the saltpetre had steadily declined owing to the German competition. Depressed by the very low wages the Nonias discarded the hereditary profession and turned to new fields for their livelihood. The matter had engaged the attention

of the Industrial Commission in 1916 but the temporary encouragement given to this saltpetre industry due to the First Great War died out with the cessation of the War. Saltpetre has almost died out in Muzaffarpur district now excepting that a few Nonias scratch out small quantities of saltpetre and sell these as a subsidiary source of income.

SUGAR FACTORIES.

In contrast to the decline of indigo and saltpetre there has been a great expansion of the cultivation of sugarcane and in the working of the Sugar Factories. The first Sugar Factory in Muzaffarpur district was started at Japaha six miles off from Muzaffarpur. Now there are three Sugar Factories at Riga in Sitamarhi subdivision, Goraul in Hajipur subdivision and Motipur in Sadar subdivision. Sugarcane is the more important of the two cash crops of the district, the other being tobacco. The location of the three Sugar Factories in the three subdivisions of the district indicates that the cultivation of sugarcane is not concentrated in a particular area but is spread over throughout the district. The Sugarcane Research Institute at Pusa in the adjoining district of Darbhanga has been a great incentive for the improvement of sugarcane breed in the district.

The sugarcane industry is a seasonal one and therefore employment is partly seasonal and partly permanent. Seasonal labour consists largely of un-skilled workmen drawn mostly from the surplus rural population of the neighbouring area while some technical men such as fitters, drivers, juice supervisors, laboratory chemists, etc., who are not employed throughout the year, are allowed a retaining allowance for the off season. No retainership is, however, allowed to un-skilled labour.

Motipur Sugar Factory, Ltd., at Motipur has a daily cane crushing capacity of 1,200 tons and the average number of workers employed in the season is 1,253. The Belsand Sugar Factory at Riga has a daily cane crushing capacity of 850 tons and employs about 1,000 persons. The Sitalpur Sugar Factory was shifted from Sitalpur in the Saran district to Goraul in the Hajipur subdivision in 1952. It has a daily cane crushing capacity of 800 tons and employs about 1,150 workers.

RECENT INDUSTRIALISATION.

During the Great War of 1914-18 there was some impetus given to industrialisation. This arose out of the necessity felt for the goods which could not be imported from foreign countries. At the same time, there was a flourishing commerce and trade with the result that commercial and business people acquired the capacity of investing in particular types of industry. Certain indigenous industries of the district like cutlery, hides, etc., made rapid stride towards expansion during this period. But the depression that followed after the cessation of the War affected these indigenous industries adversely. There have been some signs of improvement after 1930.

There are altogether 135 factories in Muzaffarpur district registered under the Factories Act.

The most important of the engineering workshops is that of Messrs Arthur Butler & Co., Ltd., at Muzaffarpur. This workshop has been in existence for more than a century now and manufactures various kinds of steel products and parts of machineries for the sugar and other mills in North Bihar. It was under the management of Messrs Balmer Lawrie Co., Ltd., of Calcutta till recently but it is now managed by an Indian Firm. It has also been given contract for manufacturing structural and wagon building work for the Railway and roller casting for sugar mills. On the average about 800 labourers are employed daily in the factory. Other concerns, namely, Messrs Sri Ram and Brothers, United Engineering Works, etc., are engaged in manufacturing structural steel, repairing and manufacturing general iron articles for the use of the public. They have also set up a Moulding Plant for the casting of pig iron from which a large number of machinery parts and general castings are produced. There are other factories of Messrs C. R. Mukherjee, Dhrup Engineering Works, Eastern Cutlery and Bireshwar Bose and Company that manufacture iron utility articles, cutlery and agricultural implements. The number of workmen engaged by each of them is less than 50 per day.

The number of small-scale iron and steel fabricators in the district is fairly large and they are carrying on their business with the help of the scrap and other steel materials. They are engaged in the manufacture of agricultural utensils, trunks and suit-cases and other iron utility articles. There are about 20 of them; most of whom are situated in the town of Muzaffarpur. The number of workers employed by each of them is, however, not more than 20 per day on the average.

AUTOMOBILE REPAIRING WORKSHOPS.

The two principal automobile repairing workshops are Messrs Ganga Motor Works at Akharaghat and Fairweathers. Messrs Ganga Motor Works happen to be the owner of a fleet of motor lorries and trucks handling transport of both men and materials throughout the district. The number of workers engaged in the Factory is about 100 per day. Messrs Fairweathers at Muzaffarpur was till recently under European management but now it has been taken over by an Indian. The number of workmen employed in this firm is about 50 per day.

HOSIERY MILLS.

There are altogether four big hosiery mills in this district engaged in manufacturing *ganjis* and socks. Their out-put is small but has a ready sale in the local market.

RICE, OIL AND DAL MILLS.

The district of Muzaffarpur is mainly a paddy producing area and a number of rice mills for husking paddy have been established. Most of these rice mills have been located in the northern part of the district, i.e., Sitamarhi subdivision. It is a seasonal industry and, therefore,

to keep this industry alive, the employers have attached oil, *dal* and flour sections to these mills. The labour force in this industry mostly comes from the agricultural population. They are mostly daily-rated or casual. They work in these mills when the harvesting or the sowing season is over. The labour force for these mills is fluctuating.

The important among these rice and oil mills are Shri Sitaram Rice and Oil Mills, Bairagnia, Shri Janki Rice and Oil Mills, Janakpur Road, Shri Lakshmi Rice and Oil Mills, Janakpur Road, Shri Chaurasia Rice and Oil Mills, Sitamarhi and they separately employ on the average 100 to 125 workers a day. There are besides a number of other rice, oil and flour mills distributed all over the district which employ up to 25 to 50 workers a day. Bairagnia situated in the northern part of the district is the centre of rice milling industry and it has got a very advantageous situation having easy access from Nepal. It is growing into a township and is bound to prosper commercially in the future. The rice mills on the borders of Nepal mainly depend on the paddy from Nepal.

OTHER MISCELLANEOUS FACTORIES.

Tobacco industry is important in the district and two factories are situated at Mahnar in Hajipur subdivision with a crushing capacity of about 100 maunds per day. They grind the stumps of tobacco plants, convert them into powder and sell them for use in manufacturing smoking tobacco. Among other factories, particular mention may be made of a number of soap factories scattered in the town of Muzaffarpur with an inferior quality of out-put consumed locally. The Mahesh Glass Works at Hajipur is the only glass factory in the district and is engaged in the manufacture of bangles, jars, tumblers and other articles for the use of the general public and the bulk of the output is consumed locally. Weaving and spinning, *gur*-making, leather industry, *biri*-making, carpentry and smithy work, mat-making, manufacture of *durries*, bell-metal works, indigenous cutlery, rope-making, ice factory and ice-candy, cold storage, printing press, and silicate industry also engage on the whole a large number of workers. Weaving and spinning are spread all over the district on cottage industry basis and are mostly done by Muslim weavers. *Gur*-making is mostly located in the villages situated by the side of the Gandak river and the village Rewa Ghat is the chief centre from where the *gur* is sent outside by boat. It is estimated that not less than 5,000 persons are engaged in *gur*-making which begins in October and lasts up to February. The *biri*-making industry is mainly carried on in the towns and engages about 1,000 persons. The tobacco known as *sukha* is imported from Gujerat and dried leaves from Hazaribagh and other districts of Chotanagpur. The abundance of *sisum* wood both in Muzaffarpur as well as in Nepal Terai has encouraged carpentry and smithy works. The making of furniture was once carried out

extensively at Lalganj and Muzaffarpur towns. Ply wood manufacture was carried on at Hajipur for some time.

There is great possibility for the development of bell-metal industry, cutlery and *durri* manufacture within the district. These are all indigenous to the district and were carried on for generations at different places. The products of cutlery works in Muzaffarpur are exported to Hyderabad (Deccan), Ambala and Bombay.

The Tirhut Institute was started by the Government of Bihar in 1925 with a view to train mechanical apprentices and artisans in different trades. This was converted into Tirhut School of Engineering. The Mechanical and Industrial Sections have turned out mechanics who are readily absorbed in the industries within the district. The Tirhut School of Engineering was raised to the status of a full-fledged Engineering College called Muzaffarpur Institute of Technology, with a four years' course leading to the Degree of Bachelor of Civil Engineering of the Bihar University in 1954. The upgrading is necessitated by or has been necessary due to rapid industrialisation in several parts of Bihar, not to speak of India as a whole, which will need a very large number of Engineering graduates. Construction of separate buildings for the Muzaffarpur Institute of Technology has been taken up at Daudpur which adjoins the town of Muzaffarpur.

The Tirhut School of Engineering which had started in 1949 has not been abandoned. This institution provides a three years' course followed by one year's practical training leading to the diploma of (*a*) civil, (*b*) electrical, (*c*) mechanical engineering awarded by the State Board of Technical Education.

OTHER OCCUPATIONS.

The other concerns that have given employment to a large number of workers include the Electric Supply Company at Muzaffarpur, the three municipalities at Muzaffarpur, Sitamarhi and Hajipur, Public Works Department, District Board and the Public Health Department. Muzaffarpur Electric Supply Company, Ltd., is working under license under section 3 of the Indian Electricity Act since 1926. It has an installed capacity of 1136 K. W. It serves within the municipal limits of Muzaffarpur. The State Electricity Department has constructed a Diesel Pilot Generating Station of 450 K. W. at Hajipur for the supply of power to the tube-wells and the electrification of the township of Sonepur and Hajipur and a number of villages in these areas. The availability of electricity is bound to develop the manufacture and trade of the district.

Besides domestic services and such other vocations as hawking, begging, running of cheap eating shops, *biri*-making, etc., the profession of rickshaw pulling has a large number of adherents. Rickshaw pulling is a profitable occupation in spite of the fact that rickshaw fare in Muzaffarpur town is perhaps the cheapest in the State of Bihar

and it gives employment even casually to any one who loses a permanent job. It is a common complaint that it is difficult to get domestic servants as this class of men prefer to pull the rickshaw or to have a job of a fourth grade employee in any office establishment. The learned professions like those of lawyers, teachers, doctors, clerks in the offices, contractors, lawyers' article clerks cover a small percentage, but represent an important and influential cross-section. It is they who represent what may be described as the brain-trust in the district.

The most important of the commodities for trade, as already mentioned, is rice. Bairagnia Bazar in Sitamarhi subdivision has continued to be the most important centre of rice trade. Bairagnia and the areas near about are surplus for paddy products and borders of Nepal Terai and a portion of Champaran district are counted among the best paddy producing areas of the North Gangetic Plain. The railway station at Bairagnia has facilitated a large turn-over in rice trade. Both milled rice and hand-pounded rice are available in abundance in Bairagnia. The next commodity in importance is timber. Bairagnia controls the bulk of the timber trade also. The decrease in the supply of the Nepali *sal* and other varieties of wood has affected the timber trade of the district. Muzaffarpur has also a big turn-over in the export of hides and skins and these are exported overseas and also to important tanneries of India. Muzaffarpur kid skin is famous all over India and has a good market in America, England and France. In the hide market it is known as the Champaran skin. Muzaffarpur also has an important *ghee* and butter trade. For about 20 years from 1910 to 1930 there used to be a factory of Shri Basanti Charan Sinha in Muzaffarpur for the preservation of fruits particularly mangoes and litchis. Due to various reasons this factory was ultimately closed in 1930. Proper canning of these fruits has a great future particularly as their seasons are short and there is a wide market for these fruits in India and abroad.

HORTICULTURE.

Horticulture is important for the district and an abundance of vegetables is grown within the district of Hajipur. Hajipur sends a big quantity of them every day to Patna by boat. Plantains from Hajipur, litchis, guava and mangoes from different places in Muzaffarpur district are exported to Bengal, Uttar Pradesh and East Punjab. These fruits are important cash crops for the cultivators. It is understood that in the mango season on the average more than one lakh of rupees worth of fruits are despatched from Muzaffarpur district alone. It is difficult to estimate the number of people that find occupation in the trade of these fruits as the business is seasonal. But, nevertheless, the number must be very large and will be well over five thousand. The opening of the Ganga bridge at Mokameh will facilitate all this business. Any link of road-bridge or quicker ferry between Hajipur and Patna would be a great factor to make more turn-over of the produce.

COMMUNICATION.

Trade and industry depend to a great extent on communication facilities. The district is fairly well connected so far as communications are concerned, by railways, road, river and air. Muzaffarpur is served by North Eastern Railway and is a part of the 4,760 miles of this railway system. On 1st November, 1875 Tirhut State Railway connected its first link from Dalsingsarai to Darbhanga, a distance of 38 miles *via* Samastipur and the construction was intended to develop the grain traffic and was meant for providing relief to the famine-striken people of the area. This mileage was increased by 1890 to 305 and this extension also connected Muzaffarpur. On January 15, 1886, Paleza Ghat was connected with Muzaffarpur and it was then linked with United Provinces (now Uttar Pradesh) *via* Sonepur. The Tirhut State Railway was succeeded by Bengal and North Western Railway which was re-named as Oudh Tirhut Railway when it was taken over by the State from the Company. This section is now under North Eastern Railway from 1953. In the earlier days, the main offices of Accounts and Audit of the Railway was housed in a building where the present Post and Telegraph Offices at Muzaffarpur are situated. Muzaffarpur is now well connected with Motihari and Darbhanga as well as Barauni-Semaria Ghat from where goods and passengers go across the Ganga and take to the Eastern Railway which was previously known as East Indian Railway. Bhagwanpur Station has also a good turn-over in food-grains and comes next in importance to Muzaffarpur, Sitamarhi and Bairagnia. There is also a good despatch of *khari* salt from different stations of Muzaffarpur district.

The railway mileage within Muzaffarpur district is 137. The main stations from commercial point of view are Muzaffarpur, Motipur, Bhagwanpur, Sitamarhi and Bairagnia. There could have been more movement of commodities if the bottle-neck at Barauni-Semaria Ghat and at Digha Ghat had not existed. The two railway systems of Eastern Railway and North Eastern Railway being of different gauges, wagons cannot be transhipped but the commodities have to be de-trained and re-loaded. This bottle-neck has affected the trade and commerce of the district along with that of the other districts of North Bihar to a very great extent. The opening of Mokameh Ghat rail-*cum*-road bridge connecting the two sides of the river will be a great boon for the quicker movement of the commodities.

There has been a recent expansion of the offices of North Eastern Railway and Muzaffarpur is the headquarters of a region now. A large number of various Railway offices have been located in Muzaffarpur. The Railways have given employment to a sizable population of the district.

The first motor car in the town of Muzaffarpur was said to have been brought by Shri Mahadeb Sha in the twenties. The first motor

bus for carrying passengers appeared in 1925 through the initiative of Shri Gulab Roy, a Guard working on the B. N. W. Railway (now North Eastern Railway). The bus plied on Muzaffarpur-Sitamarhi road and the fare of the passenger from Muzaffarpur to Sitamarhi was Rs. 1-8-0 each and the service also used to carry merchandise. The service could not continue for a very long time due to lack of passengers and goods and heavy toll charges for crossing the two bridges in between Muzaffarpur and Sitamarhi. At present there are a large number of buses and motor trucks in the district for carrying passengers and merchandise. This development of goods traffic through the motor vehicles could only be possible because of better road facilities. From Hajipur, Konhara Ghat, Sitamarhi and other places a heavy goods traffic passes through trucks and bullock carts of which there is a very large number in the district. Carts remain still the chief means of transport from the villages to the market places for grains traffic. The details of the roads within the district will be found in the Chapter on Communication.

There is a considerable river traffic from the *ghats* in the district. Boats cross from Hajipur side to Patna every day with vegetables, cattle and other merchandise besides a heavy load of passengers. Grains, luxury goods, cement, iron goods, etc., are usually transported to Muzaffarpur from Patna through boats. Mahnar has considerably improved its trade and commerce due to its location on the bank of the Ganga. A random survey in one day of the inland boat traffic based on Mahnar Ghat showed that there were 28 boats at the Ghat with a carrying capacity of 7,200 maunds. The inward volume of traffic was 60,000 maunds and the outward volume of traffic was 50,000 maunds. Besides this load carried by boats, a large quantity of commodities running to several thousands of maunds is carried daily from Mahnar through steamers. Lalganj was once a very prosperous market for trade before the introduction of the railways. Being situated on the bank of the Gandak, Lalganj commanded an extensive river-borne traffic both in passengers and in goods. Lalganj has, however, suffered a set back with the introduction of the railways and particularly because the river has receded a few miles from the town. Konhara Ghat, Rewa Ghat and Ghataro Ghat are also important from trade point of view. The personnel associated with river borne traffic is quite sizable. It may be mentioned that the traffic carried by country-boats can only be rather slow moving traffic. Steamers ply only on the Ganga.

The first aeroplane was brought to Muzaffarpur by Shri Bhudeb Mukherjee, an owner pilot in 1930. After him Mr. Fairweathers of Messrs Fairweathers was an owner-pilot and through his initiative the Sikandarpur Maidan and the smaller Chakkar Maidan in the town of Muzaffarpur were marked as air fields. Muzaffarpur has now an air strip at Patahi about five miles to the south of the town where big planes can land. Recently the Air Lines Corporation had put

Muzaffarpur on their air route from Gauhati to Katmandu *via* Patna. Litchis used to be freely air-lifted in the years 1949—51 from Muzaffarpur to Calcutta and had a ready market in Calcutta. There are possibilities for freighter planes for commercial purposes.

MELAS.

Besides the markets in the township, a good deal of trade is cleared through the *melas* and fairs of the district. A description of the principal *melas* and fairs of the district will be found in the Chapter on Directory. All kinds of commodities from grains to cattle are sold and purchased in these *melas* and fairs. It is understood that the great Sonepur Fair at one time used to be held in Hajipur town. It is said that a few years prior to 1850 owing to river action, a portion of Hajipur Town where the *mela* was being held was affected and so the *mela* had to shift to Sonepur on the other side of the river Narayani Gandak. It is peculiar that the names of different areas that grow up in Sonepur Fair are the names of different *mahallahs* in Hajipur Town. Although the fair is now held at Sonepur which is in Saran district there is no doubt that this fair is a great help for trade and commerce to Muzaffarpur district.

WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.

Regarding the weights and measures, it may be mentioned that besides the standard weight Muzaffarpur had five systems of *katcha* weights. Muzaffarpur and Hajipur towns had standard weights while Sitamarhi had *katcha* weights of 56 *tolas* a seer. At Kalyanpur in Mahnar police-station it was found that tobacco was sold on a 60-seer maund basis. At Bhagwanpur in Mahua police-station the *goladars* had standard weights but they made 3,360 *tolas* equal to one maund in wholesale transaction of food commodities such as rice, *urid*, etc.

Before the enforcement of the Bihar Weights Act, 1947, a seer varied in weight at different places as follows :—

Muzaffarpur Town	80 tolas.
Hajipur, Fatehpur, Raghopur, Mahnar, Sadar Subdivision and Mahua.	80 ,,
Bairagnia	45 ,,
Lalganj, Mahua police-station (Part)	48 ,,

Measures of length similarly vary, the cloth yard may be of 36 or 40 inches; the *hath* or cubit is generally 18 inches; and for land the *laggi* is used which varies from 5 *haths* 5 inches to 7 *haths* though the standard laggi is 6 haths or 9 feet.

CHAPTER VII.

EDUCATION.

PROGRESS OF EDUCATION.

The progress of education in the district of Muzaffarpur from 1875 to 1957 is shown in the table given below :—

Year.			Number of schools.	Number of pupils.
1875-76	...	...	314	7,027
1885-86	...	...	1,787	20,726
1895-96	...	...	1,796	28,167
1905-06	...	...	1,463	38,248
1916-17	...	...	1,520	45,651
1926-27	...	...	2,223	73,205
1936-37	...	...	1,901	73,014
1941-42	...	...	1,996	90,523
1946-47	...	...	1,711	96,839
1951-52	...	...	2,118	1,34,422
1956-57	...	...	2,571	2,11,599

The schools included in the table above are of various types, i.e., primary, middle, high schools, basic schools and special schools.

The phenomenal rise both in the number of schools and in the number of pupils in the decade 1875 to 1885 is due to the educational policy of Government based on the report of the Indian Education Commission, 1882, popularly known as Hunter Commission. The Commission had advocated for a liberal system of grants-in-aid in some places operating on payment by results, and had encouraged the private bodies to participate in the task of education. The Commission had also advocated for Indianisation of the upper staff in the organization which meant decrease in cost of education.

The figures in the table quoted above show that during the decade of 1895 to 1905 and subsequently during the quinquennium from 1941 to 1946 the number of schools had diminished from 1,796 to 1,463 and 1,996 to 1,711, respectively. Yet the number of pupils in the said periods rose by 10,081 and 6,272 respectively. It appears that this was due to the disappearance of smaller and inefficient institutions under the pressure of competition. In the quinquennium from 1941 to 1946 the decrease was mainly in the number of primary schools. In 1941—52 there were 1,635 primary schools as compared to 1,937 in 1946-47.

This decrease was mainly due to the abolition of some inefficient schools as well as to the amalgamation of upper primary schools with middle schools and lower primary schools with upper primary schools.

In the quinquennium from 1947 to 1952 there is a rise in both the number of schools as well as in the number of pupils. The rise is due to the fact that education up to class V has been made free from June, 1949 and therefore such children that were unable to go to schools due to economic reasons and on account of fees could now attend schools.

ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION.

The schools in Muzaffarpur are directly under the Divisional Inspector of Schools with headquarters at Muzaffarpur. He is responsible for the efficient inspection of all educational institutions for general education of school status. He is assisted by a District Inspector of Schools and a Special Inspecting Officer for the Education of Depressed Classes. The Special Inspecting Officer for Muhammadan Education and a Special Inspecting Officer for the Education of Depressed Classes are in charge of the schools in Patna Division as well. During 1949-50 some of the work of Basic Education Board like active control and administration, has been delegated to the general Inspectorate. Since then, a Superintendent of Basic and Social Education is also attached to the Inspectorate of each Division.

The District Inspector of Schools is subordinate to the Divisional Inspector of Schools and acts as the Educational Adviser to the District Board and Municipal authorities in all educational matters. For girls' schools other than high schools for girls there is a District Inspectress of Schools at Muzaffarpur who is subordinate to the Inspectress of Schools for Bihar whose headquarters is at Patna. Each subdivision is in charge of a Deputy Inspector of Schools. He is immediately responsible to the District Inspector and acts as the Educational Adviser to the Local Board in his subdivision. The subdivision is again divided into several circles and each circle is in charge of a Sub-Inspector of Schools in the Lower Division of Subordinate Educational Service. The organisation is placed ultimately under the Director of Public Instruction for Bihar with headquarters at Patna.

COLLEGIATE EDUCATION.

The last District Gazetteer of Muzaffarpur, published in 1907, mentions only one college in the district. There are now six colleges in the district four of which are situated at Muzaffarpur. The oldest college is Langat Singh College in Muzaffarpur which was established in the year 1899 and was first known as Bhumihar Brahman College.

As there was no provision for higher education in North Bihar up to the year 1899, those students who wished to join a college were

obliged to go either to Patna, to Bhagalpur or to Calcutta. The rapid spread of education in this part of the State led the Bhumihar Brahman Sabha to hold a meeting in March, 1899, at which it was decided to establish a college at Muzaffarpur. The college was actually opened on the 3rd July, 1899. It was affiliated at first up to the I.A. standard and raised in 1900 to the standard of a degree college.

From the outset, the college was fortunate in enlisting the sympathy and support of a number of public-spirited gentlemen of the Tirhut Division, who submitted to the Calcutta University Syndicate a registered trust deed for Rs. 50,000 executed by Choudhury Mahant Raghunath Dass, Zamindar of Jaintpur, Rai Parmeshwari Narain Mahata Bahadur, Banker, Babu Jageshwar Pd. Singh, Pleader and Sri Langat Singh, Zamindar, for the maintenance of the college. But practically, from the beginning it was Sri Langat Singh, one of the signatories of the trust deed, who had to bear the heavy burden of maintaining the college. From 1899, till 1909, it may fairly be said that Sri Langat Singh exclusively carried this burden. We find from the Inspector's report in 1908, that he subscribed annually Rs. 5,000 towards the maintenance of the college.

In 1907, a representative committee under the guidance of Mr. H. C. Woodman, District Magistrate, took over the management of the college, and great efforts were made to place it on a permanent basis. A number of prominent leaders came forward to help the institution. Among those who made substantial contribution in aid of the college, were the Maharaja Bahadur of Darbhanga and Rani Visheshwari Kuer of Narhan. From April, 1910, the Rani contributed Rs. 125 per month, which was later raised to Rs. 500 for some time, besides making a grant of Rs. 3,000 towards the permanent endowment fund. From June, 1910, the Maharaja Bahadur of Darbhanga contributed Rs. 500 per month for a number of years towards the current expenses of the college. The college was also helped considerably by the Bettiah Court of Wards. Along with a new trust fund, a Board of Trustees consisting of 25 members with Mr. R. T. Greer, C.I.E., I.C.S., Commissioner Tirhut Division as Chairman was formed. It was fortunate that the college got about this time a patron in His Highness Sir Prabhu Narain Singh, G.C.S.I., Maharaja of Benaras who made a liberal donation of Rs. 50,000 in aid of the college funds.

The one great difficulty facing the college authorities was the want of a suitable building. The Bhumihar Brahman Conference in 1910 started collecting money for this purpose, and on 20th January, 1910, the foundation stone of the present building was laid by the Maharaja of Benaras. But as the plans were not ready, the actual erection of the college building had to be postponed. By 1915 more land was purchased and the Patna University Committee drew up a detailed scheme for the development of the college. In 1915, the Government

offered to take it over, and to develop it on condition that its finances and its management were transferred to them. The college was actually taken over by the Government on the 1st July, 1915, and the name Bhumihar Brahman College was changed into Greer Bhumihar Brahman College. The name was subsequently changed into Langat Singh College in 1951. In July, 1918, the construction of the new college building was taken up, and the buildings were opened by Sir Henry Wheeler on the 26th July, 1922. Two hostels called Langat Hostel and Duke Hostel were added to the college building. New laboratories were also erected, and by 1930 the construction of the new buildings in accordance with the scheme of the Patna University was completed. The college thus came to possess good laboratories, a library and extensive playgrounds.

During 1951-52 a number of extension schemes with respect to construction of buildings were taken in hand and they have been completed. These buildings include a spacious Arts Block, Psychological Laboratory, Biological Laboratory, extension of Science buildings and the construction of a third hostel in the college compound for accommodating 125 students, with two sets of quarters, one for its Superintendents and the other for its Assistant Superintendents. For improvement of water supply in the college 2 tube-wells have been sunk and a large water tower in the north-east corner of the college compound has been constructed.

The college is affiliated in almost all subjects in I.A., I.Sc., B.A., and B.Sc. There is provision for Honours teaching in (1) English, (2) History, (3) Sanskrit, (4) Persian, (5) Economics, (6) Hindi, (7) Mathematics, (8) Philosophy, (9) Experimental Psychology, (10) Urdu, (11) Physics, (12) Chemistry and M.A. teaching in English, Economics, History, Hindi, Mathematics, Philosophy and Sanskrit. Physics and Chemistry are taught up to M.Sc. standard. There are about 2,000 students in the college.

Darshan Das Mahila College, the only women's college in the district so far, was started in 1946 out of a handsome donation of one lakh of rupees by Mahanth Darshan Das of Maniari. In 1946-47 the college had only 15 students but in 1951-52 the number rose to 73. In 1954-55 the number had gone up beyond 75. In 1948-49 it had become a first grade college. The college has got a good location and hostels. The present (1957) number of students is near 200. Science classes have been added in 1957. The College has pioneered College education for girls in North Bihar.

In the quinquennium from 1947 to 1952 the following colleges were started :—Ram Dayalu Singh College, and Shrikrishna Jubilee Law College at Muzaffarpur, Raj Narain College at Hajipur and Goenka College at Sitamarhi. Ram Dayalu Singh College was stablished in 1948 in Muzaffarpur and is now a degree college. The colleges at Hajipur and Sitamarhi are affiliated up to B.A. standard of the Bihar University

while the Shrikrishna Jubilee Law College at Muzaffarpur prepares students for B. L. examination of the Bihar University. In 1951-52 Ram Dayalu Singh College had a strength of about 1,000 students. The present (1957) strength of students is 1,869. The Goenka College at Sitamarhi has at the moment on the roll about 500 students while the number of students in Raj Narain College is 300. All these colleges are Government-aided while the Langat Singh College at Muzaffarpur is now a constituent college of the Bihar University.

Apart from these colleges which prepare students for a degree in Science or Arts, there are two special colleges namely :—(1) the Basic Training College at Turki and (2) the Sanskrit College at Muzaffarpur. The Basic Training College formerly known as the Sarvodaya Mahavidyalaya was established in February, 1951 by the Government of Bihar. This is a pioneer institution in the State for promotion of higher studies in the rural environments. The institution imparts training in subjects such as Methodology of Social Sciences, Agriculture, Methodology of Languages, Rural Engineering and Technology, Nursery and Kindergarten and Crafts. The aim is that on completion of their studies the students will spread out either as teachers in basic institutions or as village welfare workers or teachers for social education or rural technicians. The expenditure on this institution is borne entirely by the Government. The direct expenditure apart from building, furniture, etc., for the year 1951-52 was Rs. 47,641. The number of students in the same year was 70 The present (1957) strength of students is over 100.

There is a Training College for teachers now located at Turki very close to the Basic Training College. This is a residential institution and gives the necessary training to the teachers and prepares them for university degree. The college is known as Janata College.

Tirhut was well noted for Sanskrit learning. As a part of the old Tirhut, Muzaffarpur district was also a great patron of Sanskrit and oriental culture. There used to be quite a number of well maintained *tols* in the district where the students would stay with their *gurus*, do household work and be given Sanskrit education without any fees. The *gurus* had dedicated themselves to the propagation of Sanskrit learning. The *gurus* on their turn used to be maintained by the zamindars and other philanthropic persons or institutions. A number of such Sanskrit *tols* in Sitamarhi and Hajipur subdivisions used to attract students from beyond the district. With the impact of the English schools and a general craze for receiving English education, there has been a decline in the Sanskrit *tols* many of which have faded out.

It must be said to the credit of the early British administrators that as early as in 1811, there was a move for starting a Hindu college at Tirhut for imparting Sanskrit education. From Original Consultation, dated the 27th August, no. 14, 1811 preserved in Historical Records Room of West Bengal Secretariat in Calcutta, it appears that on the

23rd August, 1811, a letter was sent to the Committee for starting a Hindu college at Tirhut. In this letter, the attention of the Committee for superintending a Hindu college at Tirhut was drawn to the establishment of the Hindu college in Nudiya and suggested that the plan was to be put into effect in strict conformity with the suggestions and observations contained in that minute. The later correspondence shows that the Senior Judge of the Court of Appeal at Patna had suggested that the Sanskrit college should be established at Bour near Bowrrah instead of at Muzaffarpur. The opinion was held that the Sanskrit college should not be founded at a distance from Muzaffarpur. In Revenue Department old correspondence, Volume 537, proceedings, G. G. in Council dated 6th to 27th August, 1811 (preserved in Historical Records Room. Writers' Building, Calcutta) the possibility of starting the Sanskrit college at Muzaffarpur has been examined. It was mentioned that the bungalow lately erected at Muzaffarpur for the accommodation of the Judge of Circuit would be perfect for holding the annual disputations and that there might be a library near it. Along with this letter, a plan of the library proposed to be erected was sent. In their letter no. 14, dated the 27th August, 1811, the Committee considered that the Hindu college at Tirhut could well be supervised from Fort William. A copy of a minute recorded by the Council of Governor General on the 6th March, 1812, was sent in which it was finally decided that the Hindu college at Tirhut would be founded.

Obviously the old Dharma Samaj Sanskrit Vidyalaya, established in 1873, was a continuation of the Sanskrit Hindu College established in 1811. The old Dharma Samaj Sanskrit Vidyalaya was converted into the Dharma Samaj Sanskrit College at Muzaffarpur in January, 1917, after the separation of Bihar from Bengal. The college owes its origin largely to the munificence of the Maharajadhiraj of Darbhanga whose house has always been a great patron of Sanskrit learning and oriental culture. The Dharma Samaj Sanskrit College imparts education in the following branches of oriental studies :—Vedas, Karmakanda, Philosophy, Puran, Vyakaran, Sahitya, Jyotisa, Ayurveda and Agam. Besides these subjects instruction is given in English and Hindi as well. The annual expenditure incurred is approximately Rs. 50,000. The college was first maintained by philanthropic persons by their donations but later on it was taken over by the State Government. With the spread of the present trends of education, there has been a certain amount of modernisation of the institution. English is taught to the students and there have also been changes in the curricula. It is now a modern type of a Sanskrit college.

SECONDARY EDUCATION.

For 20 years after the formation of the district, Muzaffarpur had only one high school but the number rose to 4 in 1895. The number has steadily gone up and became 17 in 1937. In 1946 there were 37 high

schools while the corresponding number in 1951-52 is 60. The Chapman Girls' High School in Muzaffarpur was the first high school for girls. A small percentage of girls attend the Boys' high schools in the district. The Chapman Girls' High School was started as the Chapman Pathsala in 1905 with 50 girls on roll. It was first an upper primary school and then it became a middle English school. It was converted into a high school in 1930 and was provincialised in 1949 under the Bihar Education Post-War Development Scheme. The number of girl students is 500 in 1957.

The number of boys in the high schools in 1905 as mentioned in the last District Gazetteer was 1,279. It rose to 1,569 in 1911, to 3,152 in 1932 and to 4,269 in 1937. The number has steadily gone up and in 1952 the number was 9,468. The number of students in the Chapman Girls' High School was 124 in 1936, 207 in 1941-42, in 1951-52 the number was 330. As mentioned the number shot up to 500 in 1957.

According to the last District Gazetteer the annual cost of educating each pupil was Rs. 20-11-5. This figure represents the average of per capita expenditure of all institutions both Government and private. The cost in Government institutions was more by about Rs. 11 than the average. In 1941-42 the average expenditure per pupil in high schools rose to Rs. 39 out of which an average of Rs. 29-12-0 was met by the fees In 1951-52 the average expenditure per high school pupil is nearly Rs. 90-12-0. For the girls' high school it will be slightly more, i.e., Rs. 98-6-0 approximately.

In the quinquennium from 1947 to 1952 far-reaching changes in the curriculum and organisations of secondary schools were introduced. The teaching of English was discontinued before class VIII; and there was a gradual introduction of basic and technical bias for serving the needs of students of different aptitudes and abilities for meeting the requirements of different spheres of national life.

MIDDLE SCHOOLS.

Previously the middle schools were divided into two classes, namely,—(a) middle English schools, i.e., schools teaching up to middle scholarship examination in which English formed part of the course and (b) middle vernacular schools, i.e., schools which taught up to middle scholarship examination but where no English was taught. After 1911 there were no middle vernacular schools and all middle schools taught English. But since the new changes regarding curriculum were introduced English is no longer taught in any of these schools. The curriculum in these schools has also been extended. The study of that class of curriculum known as humanities has been widened and an attempt is made to make the children finger trained as opposed to mere book learning. The senior basic schools are also counted under

the heading of middle schools. The table below gives an idea of the progress of middle schools in the district :—

Year.	Middle English Schools.	Middle Vernacular Schools.	Total number of Middle Schools.	Number of pupils.
1880	6	13	19	1,177
1885	8	8	16	1,201
1895	7	8	15	988
1905	7	7	14	705
1932	..	..	63	6,179
1937	..	..	73	8,927
1942	..	..	106	12,478
1947	..	..	151	18,370
1952	..	..	264	34,884 (including Senior Basic Schools).
1957	..	..	238	34,954

The figures for the period between 1880 and 1905 have been taken from the last District Gazetteer while the rest of the figures are compiled from the quinquennial reports and other Government records. The hiatus between 1905 and 1932 cannot be filled up nor can the separate figures of middle English and middle vernacular schools be given as no reliable statistics are available. The last District Gazetteer of Muzaffarpur mentions only one girls' middle school, namely, the Methodist Mission Girls' School. The number of girls' middle schools increased to 2 in 1942, to 13 in 1947 and to 17 in 1952. The attendance in these schools is steadily increasing. It was 218 in 1942, 1,253 in 1947 and 2,202 in 1952. A number of middle schools are co-educational and the number of girls attending middle schools has exceeded the figure of 2,202 in 1952.

The last District Gazetteer does not mention the cost of education per pupil per year in middle schools. In 1941-42 it was approximately

Rs. 16 for boys and Rs. 24-1-0 for girls. In 1946-47 it was near about Rs. 28-8-0 for boys and for girls it was nearly Rs. 41. The corresponding figure in 1951-52 for boys is a little more than Rs. 58 and nearly Rs. 86 for girls. The rise in the cost in the boys' education is very steep. This rise is, probably, due to the opening of the senior basic schools which need more equipments and better trained and better paid teachers. The senior basic schools are Government schools. Most of the others are Government aided. The Girls' Middle School at Hajipur was provincialised in 1945. The number of middle scholarships is 14, out of which 3 are reserved for girls.

PRIMARY EDUCATION.

The figures of the primary schools are as follows :—

Year.	Number of schools.	Number of pupils.
1880	2,432	18,682
1885	1,765	19,209
1895	898	19,745
1905	1,033	31,890
1911	1,244	35,890
1937	1,772	53,072
1942	1,820	69,769
1947	1,565	67,352
1952	1,753	73,605
1957	2,324	1,32,423

It will be observed that decrease in the number of schools did not mean decrease in the attendance. The decrease in the number of schools in the decade 1885 to 1895 was due to the introduction in that year of the rule that *pathshalas* having five boys or only such boys as were related to the teachers were to be excluded from the returns. Between the years 1885 and 1895 a similar rule that schools with less than 10 pupils should receive no aid from public funds again caused a serious decrease. The figures in 1947 indicate a fall both in the number of schools and in the number of pupils. This is due to the fact that a number of lower primary schools were amalgamated with the upper primary schools and a number of upper primary schools were amalgamated with the middle schools. When the upper primary schools became a part of the middle schools the students were returned as students of middle schools. This fact is borne out by the figures under middle school. The rise in the number of pupils for middle schools is nearly 4,000 in 1947 but is only nearly 1,000 in 1942. The decrease, therefore, is due to the amalgamation and to different categorization.

The last District Gazetteer mentions the cost of education per pupil as Rs. 2-6-0 from all sources and Rs. 1-3-9 from public funds. It rose to Rs. 6-9-0 in 1937, to Rs. 11-9-6 in 1947 and to Rs. 17-11-0 in

1952. The cost in girls' primary schools per pupil was Rs. 4-9-7 in 1942, Rs. 5-12-9 in 1947 and nearly Rs. 9 in 1952.

The number of upper primary schools in the district of Muzaffarpur is 508 and the number of lower primary schools is 1,245. There are 19 upper primary scholarships and 76 lower primary scholarships for pupils out of which 26 are for girls, 7 for Muhamadans and 3 for Harijan castes in both the stages.

Since 1949 primary education up to class V has been made free. In order to compensate for the loss from the fees, the municipalities and district boards have been given extra grants by the State Government.

In 1938 the State Government introduced compulsory education in the district headquarters of Muzaffarpur. The quinquennial report for 1937-42, however, observes " the measure has not proved as successful as was hoped. This is because the authorities have been reluctant to enforce compulsion and the war has created chances of employment for children which the parents are loath to forego." There has not been much improvement in the position since. The other municipalities in the district, namely, Hajipur, Sitamarhi and Lalgunj, have also since introduced compulsory education. Not much progress, however, appears to have been made in this direction.

In Muzaffarpur town, there are 42 institutions which are under the schemes of compulsory education. The total population of the children of school-going age (age-group 6 to 10 years) has been estimated to be 4,170 of whom 3,472 received education in 1951-52. The proportion of enrolment and average daily attendance to the population of children of school-going age is 83 per cent and 74 per cent, respectively. The total expenditure for the town of Muzaffarpur for the year 1951-52 was Rs. 91,451.

TECHNICAL EDUCATION.

The Engineering College, Muzaffarpur has two parts, namely, (1) Muzaffarpur Institute of Technology and (2) Tirhut School of Engineering.

Muzaffarpur Institute of Technology was started in 1954 in the Tirhut School of Engineering, Muzaffarpur. Separate buildings for the Institute and hostels are under construction at Daudpur.* The course is spread over four years leading to the Degree of Bachelor of Civil Engineering of the Bihar University. The total number of present students is 180.

The Tirhut School of Engineering was started in 1949 at the premises of the Tirhut Technical Institute that was established in 1925. The Subordinate Engineering classes which were attached to the Bihar College of Engineering in Patna were transferred to the Institute from July, 1952 as the Engineering College in Patna was transferred to the control of the Patna University. The present course is for three years followed by one year's practical training leading to the diploma in

*The foundation stone was laid on 21st April 1956 by Shri Jawaharlal Nehru, the Prime Minister of India.

Civil, Electrical and Mechanical Engineering awarded by the State Board of Technical Education. Diploma in Civil Engineering has been suspended from 1954 and in its place two years' special diploma course in Civil Engineering was started with I.Sc. as the minimum admission qualification. The total number of students at present is 250.

The School of Engineering has now been converted into an Engineering College affiliated to the Bihar University. There has been a great expansion in the Engineering College recently. The school section for turning out Overseers has been maintained.

SPECIAL SCHOOLS.

The last District Gazetteer mentions 14 Special Schools in 1905, three of which were *Guru*-training or elementary training schools in each subdivision for the teachers of primary schools. The remaining were Sanskrit *tols* which prepared candidates for the Bihar Sanskrit Sanjiban. There are six training schools in 1957 with 531 students.

BASIC EDUCATION.

Basic education was introduced in this district in the year 1949. A number of primary and middle schools were converted into basic schools. The following table will show the number of various types of basic schools and their numerical strength during the year 1951-52 .—

—	For boys.	For girls.	Number of boys.	Number of girls.
Post Basic	1	..	92	8
Senior Basic	59	2	8,191	1,132
Junior Basic	Nil	Nil	..	..

The following table shows the present position of the basic schools :—

—	For boys.	For girls.	Number of boys.	Number of girls.
Post Basic	2	..	213	14
Senior Basic	65	3	17,936	2,438
Junior Basic	120	3		

Instruction is imparted in the following crafts :—Spinning, Weaving, Book-binding, Agriculture and Carpentry. The articles produced by the pupils and the teachers are sold and the money is credited in the treasury. In 1951-52 the earning from this source was Rs. 2,268 in post basic and Rs. 30,372 in senior basic schools. It is difficult to say if the basic education will pay its own way. This new system of education appears to have been well received by the people in the rural areas and a number of offers of land for basic schools have been received.

The basic schools work under the control of the District Education Council with the District Magistrate as the President and District Inspector of Schools as the Secretary. The Chairman of the District Board with three Subdivisional Officers, the Principal of the Turki Sarvodaya Mahavidyalay, the Principal of the L. S. College, a representative of the Primary Teachers' Association, a representative of the Secondary School Teachers' Association and the Superintendent of Basic and Social Education are the members of this Council. There are also four additional members nominated by the Government. Each basic school has a local committee of its own which functions as advisory body.

SOCIAL EDUCATION CENTRES.

The scheme for social education provides not only for the training in the three R's, but also provides for instruction in a variety of useful subjects and activities. Each centre has a daily literacy class. There are cultural programmes and social gatherings from time to time. Religious songs, readings from religious books, newspapers and magazines, practical demonstration on agricultural tasks, village welfare work form a part of the work of a social education centre. Most of these centres are housed in school or college buildings or in the offices of Gram Panchayat or Co-operative Societies.

After the 31st March, 1952 there were 74 centres in this district. The number of persons participating in the work of these centres was 4,971 men and 123 women. The total expenditure for these centres incurred by the Government for 1951-52 was Rs. 67,247. 27 circulating libraries are working in this district under this scheme.

LIBRARIES.

The last District Gazetteer does not mention any public library. The library movement has been encouraged and in 1951-52 there were 307 libraries in Muzaffarpur district. The number of libraries in 1957 is 611.

EDUCATION OF THE BACKWARD COMMUNITIES.

Thirty-two special schools for Momins and backward Muslim communities were running in the district including two for girls in 1951-52. Besides there were 17 special Harijan schools which were financed by

the Welfare Department. The total expenditure incurred by the Government on these centres for 1951-52 was Rs. 21,266.

In 1956-57 there were 54 special schools for Harijans and Backward Muslim communities with 2,024 boys and 200 girls as scholars.

YOUTH WELFARE ACTIVITIES.

The National Cadet Corps, Bihar Scouts and Guides, Junior Red Cross, sports and physical education are some of the youth welfare activities that may be mentioned.

Some other institutions for the welfare of the youth such as Physical Training Institute, etc., have been noticed in the chapter on Social Welfare.

JAIN PRAKRIT RESEARCH INSTITUTE.

Jain Prakrit Research Institute has been established at Vaisali in Hajipur subdivision. Vaisali is taken as the birth-place of Lord Mahabir, the 24th Tirthankar of the Jains although there are some Jains who do not concede this. Some excavations had been made at Vaisali and a number of ancient relics had been found. To mark the birthday of Lord Mahabir a *mela* has been started at Vaisali. All this has given great encouragement and an institute for the study of Jainology has been started at Vaisali in 1956. The institution has still to develop. It may, in a way, be described to be the nucleus which might one day develop into a full-fledged Vaisali University. The rapid increase of educational institutions of various types in the district and the expansion of the older institutions have naturally fostered the idea of an University for Tirhut.

CHAPTER VIII.

SOCIAL WELFARE.

Co-operative Institutions.

The first co-operative society in Muzaffarpur was an Amla Co-operative Society registered in 1912. The Muzaffarpur Central Bank was started in May, 1913. The annual report for 1915-16 shows that there were 69 societies with unlimited liabilities in the Sadar subdivision out of which 64 were affiliated to the Bank. One Central Bank at Sitamarhi was registered in 1920 and another at Hajipur in 1921 in order to supervise and finance the societies which were organised in those subdivisions. The movement made rapid progress during the next 10 years and by 1930 there were 190 societies in Muzaffarpur Sadar subdivision, 230 in Sitamarhi and 197 in Hajipur subdivisions. Most of them were agricultural societies with unlimited liabilities while the remaining were non-agricultural. These societies contracted big loans from the respective Banks. The economic depression that had set in from 1930 changed the position and the members began to default. The Central Banks in their turn found it difficult to meet their obligations. Government had to set up a Committee to review the condition of the Co-operative Institutions in Bihar and according to its recommendations, the All-India Act of 1912 was replaced by the Provincial Act of 1935. This Act aimed at improving the finances of the movement, putting restrictions on borrowing and grants of loans. It also provided for the supersession of committees, compulsory affiliation of registered societies to the Provincial Federation and provisions for surcharge and penalties.

But the stagnation that had set in still continued. In 1938 Government decided to rehabilitate the movement and provide *inter alia* the scaling down of the dues of the members to their repaying capacity and writing off the losses. Accordingly Muzaffarpur and Hajipur Central Banks were re-constituted and the Sitamarhi Central Bank in which the percentage of net deficit to gross liabilities was over 50 per cent was put under liquidation in 1941. The societies under it were also liquidated.

The organisation of Multi-purpose Co-operative Societies on an experimental basis was taken up in this district at Bithauli in Hajipur subdivision and Kishrawan in Sadar subdivision. The scheme envisaged economic development of the entire village by arranging supply of seeds and manures, supply of consumer goods, promotion of sanitation, adult education, development of village industries, cattle welfare and village communications. The multi-purpose co-operative societies have made some headway.

At present there are three Central Banks, one in each subdivision and various types of Co-operative Societies totalling 994.

CO-OPERATIVE HEALTH ASSOCIATION.

This association was founded in 1926. Its aim is to promote general health of the people by preventive measures and to foster and encourage sanitary habits. The Association arranges lectures on Health and Hygiene.

It started a gymnasium in Muzaffarpur in 1947. It ran the local Maternity and Child Welfare Centre for several years but as the work increased the Centre was handed over to a separate Committee. It runs village health centres for over 50 villages in Muzaffarpur district. Health workers' training camps are also arranged periodically by the Association.

THE COLLEGE OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION, MUZAFFARPUR.

The Co-operative Health Association, Muzaffarpur started the College of Physical Education in 1938 to give facilities to the young men for proper physical instruction. The institution has its own building, playground and apparatus. The institution receives liberal aid from the Government. It is run by a Committee with the District Magistrate as Chairman.

SRI RAM KRISHNA VIVEKANANDA SEVASRAM.

This institution was started in 1926 and is now one of the well-known institutions of Muzaffarpur. The Ashram commenced its career of services with free homeopathic and allopathic treatments but now in addition to this work, it runs a big eye hospital, school and a centre for teaching handicrafts The institution is liberally aided by both the State and India Governments. The Ashram has a big compound and a number of *pucca* houses which accommodate the homeopathic outdoor dispensary, allopathic outdoor dispensary, library, eye hospital, clinical research laboratory, schools, post office, *thakur-bari*, etc.

THE MAHILA SHILPA KALA BHAWAN, MUZAFFARPUR.

The Mahila Shilpa Kala Bhawan, Muzaffarpur was established in 1937 to impart industrial education to women to enable them to earn their own living. It runs a half-time middle school and various crafts like tailoring, hand-knitting, machine-knitting, embroidery and needle work, weaving, spinning, carpet making, toy-making, clay modelling, dyeing and calico printing, fancy leather works, cane works, domestic science, drawing, painting and music are taught. The institution is aided by the Government. Classes for teaching girls up to Secondary School standard have been added recently.

THE DISTRICT SOLDIERS, SAILORS AND AIRMEN'S BOARD.

This Board was formed on the 9th July, 1944 with the District Magistrate as its Chairman. Its aim is to help the Government in getting recruits, keep a watch over the welfare of the Army personnel and the ex-servicemen. It serves the military personnel by settling their troubles at home and tries to help the ex-servicemen and

their relatives for better living; it helps the disabled personnel and families of the deceased personnel to get settlement of their pension or other claims. It helps the military also in administration of discipline, leave and verification of other matters.

Within a decade of its existence, it has helped Government in the recruitment of over 6,000 persons and has already dealt with over 4,000 cases of ex-servicemen. The Board has helped to get a large number of family pension and disability pension cases settled by Government of India. The Board has also actively taken up a large number of cases of settlement of accounts and also cases of alleviation of distress. The distress cases were referred to the Record Centres and higher authorities for financial help. The Board also secures grants as well for the children and dependents of ex-servicemen for their education. Certain number of immediate relief grants have also been awarded by the Board to ex-servicemen.

Home for the Homeless.

The institution "Home for the Homeless" at Muzaffarpur is primarily meant for giving training in handicrafts to the destitutes. One of the objectives is to stop begging and to make the beggars earn their own livelihood. Cane-work, carpentry, lathe, tailoring work are some of the items taught. This institution was declared as a Work Home under the Anti-Beggary Act in force in Muzaffarpur town since 26th January 1955.

Muzaffarpur Club.

Muzaffarpur Club was established in 1885. It is one of the oldest institutions for social amenities in Muzaffarpur. Originally this club was meant for the Europeans only and was the centre of social activities of the European planters and officials for about fifty years. The European planters were scattered all over North Bihar. Muzaffarpur was their biggest attraction for social life. In 1913 the Stewards of the "January Meet" who used to organise Polo and horse races on the Race Course in Muzaffarpur resolved to hand over the management to the Muzaffarpur Club Committee. The Muzaffarpur Club took over the assets of the Stewards and successfully organized the Polo and Race meetings for several years. In 1919 the members of Planters' Club merged with the Muzaffarpur Club.

The club has its own extensive buildings situated on an attractive site facing the Sikandarpur "Mun" (river bed) and overlooking the Sikandarpur *maidan*. The site of the club was a gift from the family of the Zamindar of Jaintpur in Hajipur subdivision.

Now the membership of the club is open to Government, Civil and Military Officers as well as to the general public. The club has always had a large membership. There are provisions for tennis, badminton, golf, cricket, and other outdoor games. It has a covered swimming pool. There is also provision for billiards and other indoor games. The club has a well-equipped Library. It affords residential

quarters for members who drop in from distant places or for guests of the members. There is a co-operative store attached to the club. The club is affiliated to many of the first-rate clubs in Bihar and Uttar Pradesh.

The Orient Club, Muzaffarpur.

The Orient Club, Muzaffarpur was founded in 1904 and has been an excellent ground for social contacts since then. The club has its own building on a big plot of land. The property of the club vests in a board of trustees. The club offers facilities for both indoor and outdoor games. In the Great Earthquake of 1934 the club building was very badly damaged. The club took upon itself the humanitarian work of helping distressed persons and a large number of huts were raised on the club ground with the help of the club members for the people who had lost their houses. The club re-built its house very soon and has continued to foster social life in Muzaffarpur. The club has a good library. It organises cultural shows, theatricals and literary meetings.

There is a juvenile section of the club affiliated to All-India Hindusthan Scout Association.

The Town Club, Muzaffarpur.

The Town Club, Muzaffarpur has a large membership. This club also affords facilities for tennis and other outdoor games and some other indoor games. The club stands on its own ground quite close to Muzaffarpur Club. It has a good library.

Suhrid Sangh, Muzaffarpur.

This is a literary institution established in 1935. It has a big library. The Sangh has been successfully working in the interest of the Hindi language and literature in various ways. The institution gets financial assistance from the Government and runs night schools and adult education centres. It has a section for the children known as the Sishu Mandal. The institution has a large membership. The club organises literary and cultural meets.

The Rotary Club.

The Rotary Club of Muzaffarpur which was formed in 1953 holds its weekly meetings in the Muzaffarpur Club. The Rotary Club has played an important role in fostering healthy social life of the citizens and businessmen of North Bihar. Well informed and educative talks are a prominent feature of the weekly meetings.

Hari Sabha.

This is a very old organisation for religious meetings and there is a middle school attached to it. Religious discourses are regularly held.

Kali Bari.

The Kali Bari where the deity of Kali is established attracts visitors and warshippers from all over the State.

CHAPTER IX.

PUBLIC HEALTH

NUTRITION.

The normal diet of the common man consists of cereals and a small quantity of *dal* and vegetables. The food is deficient in animal protein such as milk, fish, meat, eggs, etc.. and is high in carbohydrate and the deficiency of these proteins not only makes it deficient in a number of vitamins, such as B-12 and animo acids like methionine and colin, but due to this acute deficiency in animal protein, the incidence of infantile cirrhosis is not lower than in any other parts of India. The diet is definitely unbalanced and natural resistance to diseases among the people is poor.

VITAL STATISTICS.

The following statement indicates the rates of births and deaths per thousand of the population in the district since 1920 :—

Year.	Birth rate.	Death rate
1920	35.50	29.33
1921	35.69	27.34
1922	33.94	26.74
1923	36.01	22.78
1924	35.01	29.44
1925	33.06	21.83
1926	37.22	24.45
1927	37.39	26.26
1928	34.23	26.18
1929	36.14	26.87
1930	33.77	40.17
1931	33.60	29.70
1932	33.92	21.47
1933	37.49	23.20
1934	33.76	24.03
1935	37.08	24.93
1936	38.58	24.22
1937	33.02	22.54
1938	34.58	25.65
1939	34.08	23.44
1940	33.67	23.06
1941	36.15	24.45
1942	27.54	16.39
1943	26.96	19.64
1944	26.36	40.96
1945	25.50	28.87

Year.	Birth rate.	Death rate.
1946	25.54	27.58
1947	20.21	16.13
1948	18.28	15.27
1949	23.24	10.98
1950	24.02	13.01
1951	24.22	14.61

The present system of registering births and deaths by the village *chowkidars* is faulty in the sense that they are not very accurate and not fully reliable. They are, however, sufficiently accurate for the purpose of calculating the approximate growth of the population and of showing the relative healthiness and unhealthiness of different years. The death rate had exceeded the birth rate seven times, viz., in 1892, 1894, 1896, 1930, 1944, 1945 and 1946.

In the year 1896 when the outbreak of cholera carried away over 56 thousand persons, the death rate (46.70 per 1,000) was very high.

The years 1930, 1944 and 1945 were abnormal for loss of human lives due to cholera and malarial fever. The year 1944 claimed the highest toll. In the wake of 1934 earthquake for about 10 years, mortality due to fever remained at an almost uniformly high level culminating in the year 1944 and the average mortality during this period stood at 55,465 per year. In all other years during this period, fevers alone accounted for three-fourths of the total deaths, if not more. During the period 1930—51, the trend in vital statistics has been towards a progressive increase in population except for the years mentioned above when the death rate exceeded the birth rate. The worst year was 1944 with death rate of 40.96 per thousand, the highest within this period and a close second to it was 1930 with a death rate of 40.47 per thousand, when cholera and fevers took a large toll of lives. Although the population had remained practically stationary in the decade 1911—21, it swelled up to 35,16,575 in 1951, registering an increase of about 25 per cent in 30 years and 6.9 per cent during the last decade despite the visitation of cholera and fevers (malaria) in epidemic form. The highest mortality from fever alone occurred in 1944 being 88,308 and in 1945 the figure in this respect was 81,857. The lowest number of deaths was registered in 1949, being 32,198, whereas the other years recorded mortalities ranging between 36,794 in 1950 and 73,307 in 1931, showing an average of deaths per year of 52,071 as against an average of births per year of 73,092.

As regards birth rate, O'Malley has mentioned in the last District Gazetteer that in spite of the ravages of cholera and famine, the returns for the 9 years 1892—1900 show an excess of nearly 80,000 births over deaths The statistics from 1920 to 1951 (statistics from 1904 to 1919 not being available) show that in spite of the birth rate being

higher than the death rate, the birth rate in general is gradually declining. It was 48.66 per thousand in 1904, 35.50 per thousand in 1920. 33.77 per thousand in 1930, 33.67 per thousand in 1940 and 24.22 per thousand in 1951.

PRINCIPAL DISEASES.

Fever.

Under this head are generally included in the reports submitted by the *chowkidars*, malarial fever, tuberculosis, pneumonia and typhoid fever, although the number of malaria cases is by far the largest in this group. As already stated the years 1930, 1944, 1945 and 1946 were abnormal for the loss of human lives due to fevers and cholera, of which fever, i.e., malarial fever acted as the chief cause of deaths in the district. In the wake of the 1934 earthquake, for about 12 years, mortality due to fever in the district remained at an almost uniformly high level culminating in the year 1944 and the average mortality during this period stood at 55,465 per year.

Malaria.

The district appears to have never been free from malaria altogether, although its intensity varied from year to year. The years immediately preceding the great earthquake of 1934 as far back as 1929 were also malarious more or less. This disease had shown a tendency to be localised in certain areas, namely, villages Bairagnia, Aurai, Rajkhand, Basua, Dumri, Chihuta, etc., in Katra police-station, Majorganj and some 10 or 12 neighbouring villages in Sitamarhi subdivision and villages round-about Patepur in Hajipur subdivision. Villages which were worst affected lay along the banks of streams Lakhandei, Baghmati, Purani Baghmati known as Manusmara and Baya, which are dead or dying rivers, overflowing their banks during the rainy season, leading to formation of innumerable spills and swamps when the flood water recedes and thereby increasing the number of breeding grounds for mosquitoes of malaria carrying species. The great earthquake came as a cataclysm and its ravages were very extensive indeed throughout the district. The general contour of land including that of beds of rivers was badly disturbed and its after-effects were felt in the shape of a malaria epidemic which started from the autumn of 1935 and went on increasing till it showed signs of abatement in 1936. It flared up again necessitating the opening of nine malaria centres in the district to cope with the situation. The worst affected thanas were Katra, Minapur, Sadar, Shakra, Paroo, Belsand, Sheohar, Majorganj, Sursand, Patepur, Mahua and Lalganj. The epidemic was at its fullest height from March to October, in 1936; and after a slight repose had a second wave from November, 1936 to January, 1937 and then it gradually declined. This fall in 1936 was only a seasonal lull; there was a flare up, more or less severe, year after year till it attained the zenith in 1944 and 1945 and gradually declined

in intensity until it assumed its comparatively present low level since 1948.

A full-fledged malaria survey was conducted in the district in the year 1936-37. It was held that the rainfall and humidity conditions in the district were favourable for the growth of anopheline mosquitoes and also for the development and transmission of malaria parasites. *A.culicifacies* and *A.minimus* were the two carrier species found in the course of investigations.

Evidence of movement of population to this district from known malarious localities was found, although it was not quite definite as to the part played by this population movement in respect of introduction of malaria in the district. The main recommendations regarding anti-malaria steps were : (*a*) measures directed against anopheline breeding grounds and (*b*) mass treatment with anti-malarial drugs.

Malaria surveys have been carried out from time to time and the anti-malaria scheme of the Public Health Department, Bihar has been implemented in the district of Muzaffarpur. Some details as given below of this work will be of interest.

Morsand, P.-S. Runisaidpur.—The anti-malaria scheme of the Public Health Department, Bihar raised one malaria control unit in May, 1949 in the district of Muzaffarpur with its headquarters unit at village Morsand, police-station Runisaidpur in Sitamarhi subdivision as malaria epidemic was reported from the villages under police-station Runisaidpur. Before directing any anti-malaria measures, the staff remained engaged in carrying out entomological and epidemiological investigations in twenty-two villages covering an area of twenty-five square miles along the course of the Lakhandei river under Runisaidpur police-station. Due to the floods and excessive rains, the area remains inundated for most of the period of the year. When the flood water recedes, pools of water are left behind with the result that mosquitoes find those swamps an ideal place for breeding.

Malaria transmission season starts from June and lasts up to November and this period is further strengthened by excessive rainfall, floods and influx of new persons from different parts of the State on the occasion of religious fairs, with the result that the immunes and non-immunes have to stay together, resulting in a flare up of malaria epidemic. In July, 1949, indoor house-spraying operations, scientifically known as " Interception of vector species " with D. D. T. residual spray, were carried out in all the villages under control and continued up to February, 1950. Collections of mosquitoes and other data were made and it was noticed that there had been a remarkable reduction in mosquito density. Before the indoor house-spraying operations were undertaken, spleen census and parasite rate were recorded and after the completion of house-spraying it was noticed that the spleen rate had been considerably reduced from 36.6 per cent to 17.7 per cent and this rate was further reduced to 0.0 per cent during

1951-52 after repeating the house-spraying operations. The parasite rate was reduced from 16.5 per cent to 0.0 per cent at the end of 1951-52 operations.

In view of the low endemicity of the area achieved by means of D. D. T. spraying and distribution of anti-malaria drugs, it was proposed to shift the malaria control unit from Muzaffarpur district to some highly malarious area of the State of Bihar. The proposal was accepted by the Government and accordingly the malaria control unit was shifted in July, 1952 from Morsand to Madhuban at Parasnath Hills in Hazaribagh District.

Babhangawan (Sitamarhi subdivision).—In April, 1952, malaria survey was carried out by the staff of the malaria control unit, Morsand, in village Babhangawan and the surrounding villages of Sitamarhi police-station as it was reported that virulent type of malaria had broken out in that area. Accordingly, survey was undertaken and during the course of an investigation, only sporadic cases of malaria were met with. The area is situated on the border of the old bed of the Baghmati and gets inundated during the floods. After the floods recede, innumerable breeding grounds are created, which afford favourable conditions for the anopheline mosquitoes to breed. Cattle sheds are never separated from the human dwellings. They also favour mosquito-breeding.

On examination it was noticed that the area was of low endemicity as maximum spleen rate of 6.6 per cent was recorded in village Rampur. High parasite rate of 15.0 per cent was, however, recorded which shows that the inhabitants form reservoir of malaria infection.

Majorganj (Sitamarhi subdivision).—In February, 1952, malaria survey was undertaken by the staff of the Malaria Control Unit, Morsand Anti-malaria Scheme, Bihar, at village Majorganj and the surrounding villages of the subdivision of Sitamarhi with a view to find out the prevalence of malaria. At the time of the survey, it was gathered that some ten or twelve years back, the whole area was under the grip of malaria epidemic, which lasted for about four years and thereafter the incidence of malaria declined. Due to the change in the course of the Manusmara and its subsequent merger in the Lakhandei, malaria problem in this area is now not so alarming and the disease only commences with the onset of the monsoon and ends with it. Living conditions are far from satisfactory with the result that 99.0 per cent of the inhabitants are exposed to malaria infection.

On investigation it was found that the area is of low endemicity as highest spleen rate of 3 15 per cent was recorded at village Dheng. Average parasite rate was 3.9 per cent.

Matiara, Damodar and Jahangir Patra.—In September, 1951, a malaria survey was carried out at Matiara, Damodar and Jahangir Patra, villages of Hajipur subdivision, as deaths due to a serious type of malaria were reported from this area.

On investigation it was found that the area was of low endemicity and the spleen rate recorded at these places was only 2.2 per cent. Parasite rate recorded was 12.6 per cent which is considered to be high and was due to fresh infection on account of malaria transmission season, which usually lasts from August to November.

At present a number of malaria centres are working in the district in addition to the Ayurvedic and the Tibbi malaria centres. Kala-azar centres in the district also supplement the work of malaria centres in treating malaria cases. The District Board dispensaries also give treatment to malaria cases.

Plague.

Although plague was introduced in India from China in 1897-98, the district first suffered from bubonic plague in 1900 when there were a few sporadic cases.

It lasted for five months from February to June and caused a mortality of 1,265 persons. The places that had most suffered were Hajipur thana and town and Raghopur out-post. Hajipur thana was again affected in 1901. In 1902 plague caused 1,050 deaths and in 1903 and 1904, the mortality reached nearly 3,000 a year. In 1910, 341 persons died of the disease, while in 1911 the death roll rose to 615 Plague broke out also in the years 1916, 1920 and 1924. It was, however, a noticeable fact that plague never affected Sitamarhi subdivision. The disease abated considerably from the year 1920 and it has practically disappeared from the district since 1942.

Cholera.

After fevers, the greatest mortality is caused by cholera. It was responsible for a very high death rate in the years 1892, 1894 and 1896 when the mortality rose to 6.32, 5.16 and 8.78 per thousand respectively and in 1900, there was another outbreak which resulted in mortality of 7.53 per thousand. During each of the three years ending in 1904, there have again been serious epidemics, the average number of deaths amounting to over ten thousand per annum. The highest deaths from cholera were recorded in the years 1930 and 1944 when it claimed 37,917 and 37,997 persons, respectively. In 1930, the Kumbha *mela* was held at Allahabad. There was a flare up in 1946 with 13,391 deaths and a lesser wave swept away 6,389 persons in 1948.

Previous to 1930 the years 1922, 1924, 1928 and 1929 were also affected with fairly severe cholera epidemics resulting in deaths averaging 7,525 per year.

Inoculation.

Under the Public Health Department, preventive measures for the outbreak of this disease are taken in the shape of disinfection of wells and mass inoculation.

Small-pox.

Small-pox breaks out in the district every year but its intensity has never been of a serious nature and the death rate due to small-pox in recent years has never exceeded 63 per thousand as against 70 per thousand as mentioned in the last District Gazetteer of Muzaffarpur (1907).

Vaccination.

Prior to 1869, when the present system of anti-small-pox vaccination with cow pox vaccine was first introduced, India had its own system of prophylaxis against this disease in the form of hand to hand vaccination with actual small-pox material which used to be preserved after maceration by a class of people known as Acharya Brahmin in Bengal and Mali in Bihar and Northern India. There was no doubt that in the course of preservation for months in wet clothes in damp places, the small-pox virus became attenuated in virulence. The practice was totally stopped by the Bengal Vaccination Act of 1880 and the Jennerian system of vaccination has been in vogue ever since. Although the vaccinators travel from door to door in towns and villages, wholesale vaccination against small-pox has not been possible so far due to ignorance and superstition on the part of the general public. Primary vaccination is compulsory. From 1900 to 1904, protection by vaccination was afforded to 30.02 persons per thousand of population whereas in 1904-05 altogether 88,200 persons were successfully vaccinated or 33.07 per thousand of population. The average number of primary and re-vaccination operations performed in the district during the last decade was 1,06,411 and 2,63,707 respectively.*

Other fevers.

Other fevers such as pneumonia, typhoid and tuberculosis are not prevalent in such a degree as to constitute a public health problem in the district. The statistics of the T. B. clinics, however, show an increase of 21.47 per cent during last decade.

Kala-azar.

This malady assumed serious nature about 15 years back. It was mainly imported, as it were, by the people of the labourer class returning from the kala-azar areas of North Bengal and Assam. Four kala-azar centres were opened in the worst affected areas in the year 1939. Since the start of these centres altogether 97,130 cases of kala-azar were treated. The incidence has remarkably fallen by now.

Other Diseases.

The other diseases most frequently found are dysentery and diarrhoea, skin-diseases, hook worms, goitre, ear-diseases. Goitre is usually common. Apparently, it is due to the fact that the water of some of the rivers, which come down with large quantities of silt from

---

*No statistics of attacks of pox in cases vaccinated and re-vaccinated are kept.

the Himalayas, is heavily impregnated with various salts; and it would seem that goitre is a common disease among the inhabitants of the country watered by the little Gandak, specially among those living north of the river.

The number of lepers in the district is not inconsiderable according to the survey done by a party in 1928. There are seven District Board dispensaries where anti-leprosy clinics exist and there is one leper asylum at Kanhauli in Muzaffarpur where lepers are kept as indoor patients and treated. The seven clinics are attached to the dispensaries at Sitamarhi, Sursand, Keotsa, Katra, Mahua, Maniari and Jaintpur. The first four were opened in 1920, the clinics at Mahua and Maniari were started in 1932 and that at Jaintpur in 1935. They treat about 2,000 lepers per year with the grants given by Bihar Leprosy Relief Committee. The leper asylum at Muzaffarpur has 60 indoor beds (48 males, 12 females) and is maintained by the Mission for lepers with the help of the grant from the State Government.

SANITATION IN THE TOWNS

The town of Muzaffarpur and the subdivisional towns of Sitamarhi and Hajipur and also Lalganj in Hajipur subdivision have got municipalities. These towns have grown without any planning. The difficulty of contour in a deltaic country has also to be faced. The drainage and conservancy are accordingly defective. There are very few well constructed roads, lanes, open spaces as parks and hygienic market places. Only in parts of Muzaffarpur town re-built after the earthquake in 1934, some attention was paid to these requirements. A detailed sewerage scheme for the town of Muzaffarpur is under consideration of the Public Health Engineering Department of the State Government. Adequate provisions for pure drinking water in rural areas have not yet been possible.

ADMINISTRATION AND MEDICAL RELIEF.

There is a Civil Surgeon whose headquarters is at Muzaffarpur. He is in overall charge of the administration for medical purposes for the district and works under the administrative control of the Directorate of Health Services of the State Government. The District Sadar hospital and the two Subdivisional hospitals at Hajipur and Sitamarhi are, separately, in charge of the Assistant Surgeons. There are Lady Doctors in all these three hospitals. The District Board and Government dispensaries and hospitals throughout the district including those which are run with Government assistance are separately in direct charge of qualified doctors. The Civil Surgeon is the head of all the medical institutions. There are altogether 44 medical institutions, which serve the population of 35,20,739, the average of each being 80,016. This is no doubt inadequate, but the progress made in this direction is substantial. In 1902, the district had only 8 hospitals and dispensaries with 95 indoor beds as against 44 institutions with 252 indoor beds in 1952. At present the ratio of beds to

population is 1 : 13,954 and the number of beds to 1,000 population comes to only 0.07 as against 0.16 in Bihar and 0.24 in India. The total number of beds in the Sadar hospital is 111 and in Hajipur and Sitamarhi subdivisional hospitals 32 and 26, respectively. The rest of the 252 beds are distributed in other hospitals of the district.

In addition to 44 Allopathic hospitals and dispensaries, there are a number of Ayurvedic and Unani dispensaries managed by the District Board, Ramkrishna Vivekananda Sevashram at Bela besides the leper asylum and some leper clinics.

The Tuberculosis clinic was opened in 1935 in the compound of the Sadar hospital. The comparative figures of treatment for 1941 and 1951 are given below :—

	1941	1951
Total number of patients treated ...	368	447
Number of Tuberculosis patients diagnosed	120	197
Average daily attendance of patients ...	10.7	14.8

Sixteen beds for Tuberculosis patients have been started in the Tuberculosis clinic since 1950.

A sum of Rs. 3 15,235 was spent by Government and local bodies for maintenance of the institution in 1950 and the expenditure is progressively on the increase. In 1950, 6,149 in-patients and 3,52,963 out-patients were treated and 17,749 surgical operations were performed in the hospitals and dispensaries.

The Ramkrishna Vivekananda Sevashram at Bela, near Muzaffarpur town maintains an Eye Hospital and has wards for kala-azar and other diseases. The institution gets liberal grants from the State Government of Bihar and the Central Government and other bodies.

MATERNITY AND CHILD WELFARE CENTRE.

The Maternity and Child Welfare Centre was started at Muzaffarpur in 1931. It has an Executive Committee.

The Centre gets contributions from the District Board, Muzaffarpur Municipality and the Bihar Maternity and Child Welfare Society. A very small amount is usually raised every year by subscriptions and donations. The Centre also gets grants for training of *dais*. The Civil Surgeon is the Secretary of the Centre. A Lady Health Visitor and trained *dais* are attached to the Centre.

The principal aim of the Centre is health education. The Lady Health Visitor visits and has informal talks with mothers at their houses and gives practical instructions regarding maintenance of their health and of their children. Babies and nursing and expectant mothers are bathed daily at the Centre. They are weighed and given milk regularly. Minor ailments are treated at the Centre and the

cases requiring hospitalisation are referred to Sadar hospital. A certain quantity of drugs is also distributed. *Dais* are trained at the Centre and practical training for them at the Sadar hospital is arranged. *Dais* under training receive a stipend.

PUBLIC HEALTH ORGANISATION.

A separate Public Health Section was started in 1925. There is now a District Health Officer, assisted by Assistant Health Officers for the subdivisions. Under them, there are a large number of Sanitary Inspectors, Health Inspectors, Disinfectors and Vaccinators. This section is primarily meant to conduct preventive measures. A separate section, co-ordinated and controlled by the Civil Surgeon, facilitates the prevention of epidemics.

MEDICAL PERSONNEL.

The number of registered practitioners inclusive of Medical Officers in charge of hospitals and dispensaries was 125 in 1952. The ratio of medical practitioners per thousand of the population is 0.03. The proportion of doctors to the population is approximately 1 : 28,133. This excludes, of course, a large number of Homeopaths, Vaids, Hakims and Naturopaths.

A review of fifty years from 1902 to 1952, as far as medical relief is concerned, will be of interest. The number of hospitals and dispensaries in 1902 was 8 as against 44 in 1952. The number of indoor beds in 1902 was 95 and in 1952 it was 252. The progress made in each of the decades has been shown in statement A.

In spite of increase in the number of medical institutions, they cannot be said to be very adequate for the population of the district. One of the main reasons for the inadequacy of medical relief arrangements is due to the fact that there are hardly any private endowments or charitable institutions, exclusively maintained by the generous public. The Ramkrishna Vivekananda Sevashram has, however, received some financial aid from private charity. But it forms a very small percentage of the capital outlay which is solely derived from the Government. This Sevashram also depends on the Government for its maintenance.

Of late, the Department of Public Health has been taking some steps for the improvement of health of the students by arrangement of tiffin and medical check up. The B. C. G. campaign has been very useful in this respect.

STATEMENT A.

Statement showing the extension of medical relief in the district of Muzaffarpur during the period between 1902 and 1952.

Names of Hospitals and Dispensaries.	Class.	Whether only outdoor arrangement.	If indoor, number of beds provided.	Year or date of establishment.	Remarks.
1	2	3	4	5	6
Hospitals and Dispensaries in 1902.					
SADAR SUBDIVISION—					
1. Maheshwar Sadar Hospital.	IIIA	..	31	1838 ..	Provincialised on 1st April 1945.
2. Baghi Dispensary	V	Outdoor	..	25th February 1895.	Total number of beds in 1952—111 beds.
3. Railway Dispensary	..	Ditto	..	1877.	
HAJIPUR SUBDIVISION—					
4. Hajipur Subdivisional Hospital.	IIIA	..	18	1st December 1869.	Total number of beds in 1952—32 beds.
SITAMARHI SUBDIVISION—					
5. Sitamarhi Subdivisional Hospital.	III-A	..	19	23rd June 1870	Total number of beds in 1952—20 beds.
6. Runisaidpur Dispensary.	III-A	Outdoor	..	1st September 1901.	
7. Sursand Hospital	V	..	7	1st February 1873.	Total number of beds in 1952—7 beds.
8. Parihar Dispensary	V	Outdoor	..	1st October 1882.	
New Hospitals and Dispensaries started during the period from 1903 to 1912.					
SADAR SUBDIVISION—					
9. Paru Dispensary	III-B	Outdoor	..	10th April 1906	Total number of beds in 1952—12 beds.
10. Police Hospital ..	II	..	7	..	
HAJIPUR SUBDIVISION—					
11. Mahua Dispensary	III-B	Outdoor	..	9th March 1906.	
SITAMARHI SUBDIVISION—					
12. Sheohar Hospital	III-B	..	6	12th January 1912.	Total number of beds in 1952—6 beds.

Names of Hospitals and Dispensaries.	Class.	Whether only outdoor arrangement.	If indoor, number of beds provided.	Year or date of establishment.	Remarks.
1	2	3	4	5	6
New Hospitals and Dispensaries started during the period from 1913 to 1922.					
SADAR SUBDIVISION—					
13. Katra Dispensary	III-B	Outdoor	.	1st December 1917.	
14. Minapur Dispensary	III-B	Ditto	.	3rd July 1918.	
15. Sakra Dispensary	III-B	Ditto	..	1st April 1922.	
16. Motipur Dispensary	III-B	Ditto	..	1st July 1917.	
17. Saraiya Dispensary	III-B	Ditto	..	13th May 1922.	
18. Sahebganj Hospital	III-B	..	16	4th September 1921.	Total number of beds in 1952—16 beds.
HAJIPUR SUBDIVISION—					
19. Lalganj Hospital	III-B	Outdoor	..	14th December 1913.	Total number of beds in 1952—6 beds.
20. Mahnar Dispensary	III-B	Ditto	..	14th April 1914.	
SITAMARHI SUBDIVISION—					
21. Pupri Hospital ..	III-B	..	..	13th June 1921	Total number of beds in 1952—6 beds.
22. Belsand Dispensary	III-B	Outdoor	..	14th April 1921.	
23. Bairagnia Dispensary	III-B	Ditto	..	20th February 1922.	
New Hospitals and Dispensaries started during the period from 1923 to 1932.					
SADAR SUBDIVISION—					
24. Keotsa Dispensary	III-B	Outdoor	..	15th April 1926.	
25. Maniary Hospital	IV	..	24	11th November 1932.	Total number of beds in 1952—24 beds.
26. Sakri Dispensary	III-B	Outdoor	..	19th April 1932.	
27. Jaintpur Dispensary.	III-B	Ditto	.	18th March 1927.	

Names of Hospitals and Dispensaries.	Class.	Whether only outdoor arrangement.	If indoor, number of beds provided.	Year or date of establishment.	Remarks.
1	2	3	4	5	6
HAJIPUR SUBDIVISION—					
28. Chaksikandar Dispensary.	III-B	Outdoor	..	14th August 1924.	Total number of beds in 1952—6 beds.
29. Jandaha Dispensary	III-B	Ditto	..	13th July 1923.	
30. Raghopur Dispensary.	III-B	Ditto	..	8th November 1923.	
SITAMARHI SUBDIVISION—					
31. Binutahi Dispensary	III-B	Ditto	..	9th December 1923.	
New Hospitals and Dispensaries started during the period from 1933 *to* 1942					
SADAR SUBDIVISION—					
32. Sanathi Dispensary	I	Outdoor	..	1st February 1934.	Taken over by Government on 1st April 1939
HAJIPUR SUBDIVISION—					
33. Sondho Dispensary	III-B	Ditto	..	15 August 1939.	
SITAMARHI SUBDIVISION—					
34. Dumra Dispensary	I	Ditto	..	1st March 1937	
35. Majorganj Dispensary.	III B	Ditto	..	1938.	
New Hospitals and Dispensaries started during the period from 1943 *to* 1952.					
SADAR SUBDIVISION—					
36. Dahila Dispensary	III-B	Outdoor	..	1st March 1946.	
37. Narma Dispensary	III-B	Ditto	..	1st January 1950.	
38. Dharfari Dispensary	III-B	Ditto	..	1st April 1949	
HAJIPUR SUBDIVISION—					
Nil.					
SITAMARHI SUBDIVISION—					
39. Bajpatti Dispensary	I	Outdoor	..	7th June 1947.	
40. Narwara Dispensary	I	Ditto	..	15th September 1945.	
41. Riga Sugar Factory Dispensary.	I	Ditto	..	1937.	

Total number of beds in 1952—252 beds.

CHAPTER X.

LOCAL SELF-GOVERNMENT.

Outside municipal areas, the administration of local affairs is vested in District Board and in Local Boards, subordinate to the District Board, which have been constituted for the subdivisions of Sadar Sitamarhi and Hajipur.

The District Board is responsible for maintenance of District Board roads including bridges and culverts on them, dak and inspection bungalows, rest houses and roadside land and properties, maintenance and superintendence of public schools up to middle standard, public health and sanitation including vaccination and water supply, charitable dispensaries, veterinary hospitals and dispensaries and public ferries.

The Local Boards under general superintendence of the District Board are responsible for primary schools, village roads vested in the District Board and pounds.

DISTRICT BOARD.

The District Board of Muzaffarpur, according to the amended Local Self-Government Act, 1923, consists of 40 members of whom 30 are elected and 10 nominated by State Government of whom two are *ex officio* members. The Chairman and Vice-Chairman are elected by the members of the District Board. The members of the District Board carry on their administration through the Executives who are guided by four principal Standing Committees formed annually for Finance, Education, Sanitation and Public Works. The Local Self-Government Act, 1923 defines the powers and functions of the Chairman, Vice-Chairman and of the members.

In the last District Gazetteer published in 1907 it had been mentioned that the District Board consisted of 19 members, of whom 6 were elected, 8 were nominated and 5 were *ex officio* members The chapter on Local Self-Government in the last District Gazetteer of Muzaffarpur has the following paragraph regarding the receipt and expenditure of the District Board :—

> " The Statistical Appendix shows, for the ten years 1892-93 to 1901-02, the principal source from which it derives its income, and the objects on which it is spent; and it will suffice here to say that its average annual income during the decade was Rs. 2,76,000 of which Rs. 1,02,000 was derived from Provincial rates, while the average expenditure was Rs. 2,73,000, of which Rs. 1,96,000 was spent on civil works, Rs. 25,000 on education and Rs. 6,000 on medical relief. During the quinquennium 1895-96 to 1899-1900 the average annual income was Rs. 2,75,360 and the expenditure Rs. 2,79,070 and in the next five

years they were Rs. 2,97,260 and Rs. 2,93,730 respectively. The total increase of income in the quinquennium 1900-01 to 1904-05 was Rs. 1,09,000 and of expenditure Rs. 73,300. In 1904-05 the Board had an opening balance of Rs. 68,680; its total income from all sources was Rs. 2,71,300 or 1 anna 7 pies per head of the population; and the expenditure in the same year was Rs. 2,85,700."

Regarding the present receipts and expenditure of the District Board, the Statistical Appendix shows, for 10 years, 1941-42 to 1951-52 that the average annual income during the above period of ten years was Rs. 20,23,286 of which Rs. 8,04,872 was derived from Provincial rates and Rs. 10,92,461 from grants from the State Government. The average expenditure for the same period was Rs. 19,49,562 of which Rs. 5,31,556 was spent on civil works, Rs. 9,29,279 on education and Rs. 1,48,618 on medical relief as against Rs. 2,73,000 in 1892-93 to 1901-02 of which Rs. 1,96,000 was spent on civil works, Rs. 25,000 on education and Rs. 6,000 on medical relief. As against civil works which was the largest item of expenditure at that time the largest portion of the income in 1951 went to education. The District Board maintains 130 middle schools and 1,431 upper primary and lower primary schools now as against 8 middle schools and 34 upper primary and lower primary schools in 1901.

The average income for the period 1941-42 to 1951-52 from all sources was nine annas per head of population. For the same period the incidence of expenditure per head has been eight annas and nine pies. The main source of standing income of the District Board was the Provincial rates which had an average yield of Rs. 8,04,872. The incidence of taxation works out at 3½ annas per head of population. In the last District Gazetteer of Muzaffarpur (1907) it was mentioned that the Provincial rates forming the principal source of income brought in Rs. 1,80,200 and the incidence of taxation amounted to only one anna per head of the population.

As mentioned before the bulk of the income from all sources is spent on education. The following figures will show the picture of the schools in 1951 and expenditure thereon as compared to that of 1901 :—

	1901	1951
Middle schools	8	130
Upper primary and lower primary schools	34	1,431
Total expenditure	Rs. 53,000	Rs. 9,29,279

The District Board also awards 57 scholarships (lower primary) of Rs. 3 per month, six scholarships of Rs. 25 each to girls of the district, studying at Lakhisarai Vidyapith. There are 10 girls' middle schools managed by the District Board and 2 girls' middle schools aided by the Board in the rural areas.

From the point of view of expenditure after education comes civil works and the average expenditure has been Rs. 5,31,556 in 1951 as

against Rs. 1,97,500 in 1901. This amount is spent mostly on maintenance of roads and buildings and on staff employed for it. The immediate administration of all civil works is placed in the hands of the District Engineer. There are at present one dak bungalow, four inspection bungalows and eight rest houses distributed throughout the district. The number of such bungalows has not increased since 1901. The average receipt from ferries and pounds in 1941-42 to 1951-52 is Rs. 31,000 and Rs. 4,169 respectively as compared to Rs. 37,120 and Rs. 6,700 in 1901, respectively. The Board maintains 2,179 miles of roads of which 129 miles are metalled, 1,138 miles are un-metalled and 912 miles are village roads.

It may be mentioned that the Public Works Department did not have an existence in this district till very recent years. That is the reason why the District Board had to maintain a very large number of roads within its resources. It has also to be mentioned that good road-building materials are not available in this district and have to be imported from outside. The bottle-neck in transhipment over Ganga river acts as an impediment to quick locomotion. These are some of the reasons why the District Board could not maintain the roads properly. Recently a number of roads and particularly those linking Muzaffarpur with other districts have been taken over by the Public Works Department.

For medical relief the District Board maintains 32 Allopathic, 7 Ayurvedic and one Tibbi dispensaries; besides it gives subsidy to 20 practitioners as compared to the 4 dispensaries in 1901. The Board also maintains 3 veterinary hospitals and 7 dispensaries besides giving aid to one hospital. The average expenditure under this head comes to Rs. 31,000.

The District Board maintains a separate Public Health Department for maintenance of sanitation and combating epidemics in rural areas. The Public Health Department is under a District Health Officer who has a staff of Assistant Health Officers, Sanitary Inspectors, Health Inspectors, Disinfectors and Vaccinators. The average annual expenditure on public health and water supply is Rs. 1,23,000. Appendices A and B are the statements showing the annual receipt and expenditure respectively for ten years (1942 to 1952) indicating the main heads.

LOCAL BOARDS.

There are three Local Boards, one for each subdivision of Sadar, Sitamarhi and Hajipur consisting of elected and co-opted members. The strength is as follows :—

—	Elected.	Co-opted.	Total.
Sadar .. .	11	3	14
Sitamarhi	12	4	16
Hajipur	7	2	9

The power of the Local Boards is limited to the management of primary schools, pounds and some roads put under their charge.

A study of the working of the District and Local Boards in the last few years gives an impression that there has been more of the tendency to look up to the Government to give grants for the carrying on of the normal functions of the District Board. Under the Local Self-Government Act, 1885, the District Board has got power to levy taxes on bullock carts and horse carriages. It is estimated that there are about 40,000 bullock carts in Muzaffarpur. The District Board has not levied any taxation on bullock carts or horse carriages. There are also complaints that grants given by the State Government for earmarked objects have not always been properly utilised. The District Engineer and the District Health Officer are slowly being brought under the administrative control of the State Government. These incumbents are now liable to transfer under the orders of the State Government.

GRAM PANCHAYAT.

The Bihar Panchayat Raj Act, 1947 (Act VII of 1948) was actually implemented in the district of Muzaffarpur on the 15th January, 1949. The scheme aims at the establishment of Local Self-Government in every nook and corner of the State and aims at the decentralisation of power. It intends to make people conscious to share the responsibility in matters of social and economic uplift of the village community. With this end in view, the village Panchayats, considered as basic units of administration, have been vested with the executive and judicial powers along with powers to raise taxes for their various local needs. Improvements in communication, irrigation, education, public health and village industries are the important functions of the Panchayats.

The Government have provided for a Gram Sewak in each Panchayat who after receiving proper training acts as an agent for execution of development schemes and to carry on the office work in the Gram Kuchery. An honorary Chief Officer is elected by the members of the village Panchayat as the Mukhia and it is subject to report to the District Panchayat Officer.

The district had 262 notified Gram Panchayats in 1951. Besides these, there were 121 un-official Panchayats functioning in the district. The proposed number of Gram Panchayats in the district was 809. The present picture is given below :—

Gram Panchayats in 1957.

1. Total number of Gram Panchayats	739
2. Total number of Official Gram Panchayats ..	501
3. Total number of un-official Gram Panchayats ..	238
4. Total number of villages covered by notified Gram Panchayats.	3,269
5. Total number of villages covered by un-official Gram Panchayats.	1,171

Till the end of the year 1953 Gram Kucheries started functioning in 240 Panchayats and these village courts have disposed of a total number of 6,970 civil suits and criminal cases. But during the year 1953-54 the total number of cases filed were 1,632 out of which 1,426 were disposed of.

In 1956 the total number of Gram Kucheries were 214 and the number of cases disposed of by them were as shown below :—

		Criminal cases.	Civil suits.
Pending at the beginning of the year	...	301	117
Instituted during the year	...	3,166	1,852
Total	...	3,467	1,969
Compromised ...	...	2,052	1,082
Convicted ...	...	359	...
Decreed ...	...	...	371
Dismissed ...	...	541	405
Pending ...	...	515	111
Total	...	3,467	1,969

An attempt to make an amicable settlement is a compulsory provision of the Bihar Panchayat Raj Act.

Government have also decided to abolish all the Union Boards of the district except Mahnar Union Board which is urban in character and to replace them by the Gram Panchayats as early as possible.

Establishment of Panchayats in villages helps the change-over from the Police State to a Social Welfare State.

It may be noted here that within a few years of their existence the Gram Panchayats have been able to execute a number of projects particularly some important embankments besides village roads. It will be premature to make any objective appraisal of the Gram Panchayats so soon but it could be said that they have had good response from the villagers who have become conscious of the good work that could be done through the Gram Panchayats.

MUZAFFARPUR MUNICIPALITY.

The Muzaffarpur Municipality was established in 1864. The area of the Municipality is now 7 square miles as against 6 square miles as

mentioned in the last District Gazetteer. The earlier municipal boards consisted of 19 commissioners out of whom 12 were elected, 6 were nominated and one was *ex officio* member.

Subsequently the town was divided into 12 wards instead of the previous six wards then existing and thereafter the board consisted of 24 elected and 6 nominated members which continued up to 1951-52. In the municipal election of 1952-53 the seats in each of the 12 wards were elected according to the number of votes in each ward with the result that the number of elected members rose to 32 and thus the board now consists of 32 elected and nominated members whose number was increased to 8.

The population within the Municipality according to the published Census Tables is as follows :—

Year of Census.	Population.
1911	43,668
1921	32,755
1931	42,812
1941	54,139
1951	73,504

The average income of the Muzaffarpur Municipality during the five years 1895-96 to 1899-1900 was Rs. 67,020 and expenditure Rs. 58,390. In 1904-05 the income of the Municipality was Rs. 86,950 and the expenditure amounted to Rs. 73,180 the principal items being conservancy and public works. Besides this the Municipality paid the interest and instalments of a loan of Rs. 70,000 granted by the State Government some years previously.

The figure of average income and expenditure in the quinquennium period 1920-21 to 1924-25 was Rs. 2,02,560 and Rs. 2,13,360, respectively. In the quinquennium of 1948-49 to 1951-52 it rose to Rs. 6,74,234 and Rs. 65,12,672, respectively.

The above figures will show that gradually the Municipality has augmented its finance. Previously house-tax, latrine rate, and water rate were charged at the rate of 7½, 5 and 6 per cent of the annual value of the holdings respectively which were enhanced in the year 1946-47 to 12½, 7½ and 6 per cent, respectively. In the year 1926 the Municipality had taken loan of Rs. 1,75,000 for organisation of waterworks and in 1943 a further loan of Rs. 1,46,000 to pay off the liabilities.

In 1939 free and compulsory primary education was introduced for the children between 6 and 10 years of age and residing within the limits of this Municipality.

The number of rate-payers is 8,647 as against 7,239 mentioned in the last District Gazetteer (1907). In 1951 number of rate-payers

represented 15.97 per cent of the population. Of total expenditure incurred in 1951 the percentages under different heads were as shown below :—

General Administration	10·22
Lighting	3·35
Water Supply	11·51
Drainage	3·39
Conservancy	42·32
Medical	·85
Vaccination	·38
Public Works	6·51
Education	13·13

The Municipality maintains 32 miles of roads distributed as follows :—

Tarred road	13 miles.
Pucca road	16 miles.
Kutcha road	3 miles.

After the Earthquake of 1934 most of the roads of the town were widened and the main roads were coal-tarred.

Nearly 2,500 boys of compulsory age, i.e., between 6 and 10 years are receiving primary education in municipal primary schools besides others reading in the 6 high schools and 5 middle schools running independently within the municipal area.

HAJIPUR MUNICIPALITY.

Hajipur was constituted a municipality in 1869 and was given a Municipal Board consisting of 13 members of whom 9 were elected and 4 were nominated. The area within the municipal limits was 10 square miles and the number of rate-payers was 3,721 or 17.3 per cent of the total population as mentioned in the last District Gazetteer of Muzaffarpur. The present area of the Municipality remains the same but the total number of commissioners has been increased to 21 out of which 17 are elected and 4 are nominated. The total number of wards is now 6. The number of rate-payers has gone up to 3,971 for a total population of 25,676. The present incidence of taxation is Re. 1-0-4 per head.

Discussing the receipts and expenditure of Hajipur Municipality the last District Gazetteer of Muzaffarpur (1907) mentions as follows :—

"The average income during the five years 1895-96 to 1899-1900 was Rs. 10,350 and the expenditure Rs. 9,110; and in the next quinquennium they were Rs. 14,190 and Rs. 11,450,

respectively. The total increase of income in the quinquennium 1900-01 to 1904-05 was Rs. 19,170 and of expenditure Rs. 11,690. In 1904-05 the income of the Municipality was Rs. 14,506, the principal receipts being Rs. 9,090 realised from a tax on houses and lands at 7½ per cent of the annual value of the holdings; the total incidence of taxation was 7½ annas per head of the population. The expenditure amounted to Rs. 11,290, the principal items being public works, which accounted for 32.5 per cent of the expenditure, general establishment (17.5 per cent), conservancy (17.3 per cent) and medical relief (16.4 per cent)."

As compared to the above quotation the figures for 1952-53 are as follows :—

Income, 1952-53.	Rs.	Expenditure, 1952-53.	Rs.
1. Municipal tax on holdings and latrines.	26,316	1. Office establishment ...	2,167
		2. Collection charges ...	4,069
2. Registration and License fees	8,532	3. Public safety ...	2,207
3. Revenue derived from municipal properties, etc.	18,048	4. Public health ...	44,857
		5. Medical	2,180
4. Grants and contribution ...	38,353	6. Public works ...	17,330
5. Miscellaneous ...	842	7. Public Instruction ...	15,889
6. Loan	3,915	8. Miscellaneous ...	2,485
7. Deposits	8,572	9. Advance	900
		10. Deposits	10,192
Total	1,04,578	Total	1,01,676

The average income and expenditure from the year 1919-20 to 1953-54 are shown below :—

Years.	Income.	Expenditure.
	Rs.	Rs.
1919-20 to 1924-25	28,836	29,686
1925-26 to 1934-35	31,933	32,463
1935-36 to 1944-45	35,279	35,449
1945-46 to 1953-54	76,317	84,206

The Municipality maintains a length of 9½ miles of *pucca* road and 16 miles of *kutcha* road. The road which runs from the Railway station of Hajipur to Konhara Ghat has been provincialised. Under the Public Works Department this road has already been stoned, metalled and tarred. The metalling of the municipal roads of the town has been proposed with Government aid. The Government had also taken the initiative to instal electric plants and the Public Health Department have provided water after the electrification of the town.

There are 8 upper primary schools and 1 lower primary school for boys as against 2 lower primary schools for girls. The Municipality also gives aid to 2 lower primary *makhtabs*, 2 lower primary girls' schools and one middle school. Every year on the occasion of *Kartic Purnima mela* thousands of people congregate within the municipality and special measures have to be taken for health and sanitation. Among other *melas* held annually within the municipal area, the most famous is *Ramnavami mela.*

LALGUNJ MUNICIPALITY.

Lalgunj was constituted a municipality in 1869 and had a Municipal Board consisting of 11 commissioners, of whom 10 were nominated and 1 was elected. The area of the Municipality is now 7½ square miles. Due to the introduction of the adult franchise since 1951 by the Indian Constitution of 1950 the total number of commissioners has been increased from 10 to 15 out of which 12 are to be elected and rest nominated. The incidence of taxation as mentioned in the last District Gazetteer (1907), was Re. 0-7-11 per head of the population whereas at present it is Re. 1 per head. The present population is 12,341.

The Municipality possesses 5.61 miles of *pucca kunkar* metal road and 11.15 miles of *kutcha* road including lanes. The main source of income is holding and latrine rates, the former is levied at the rate of 10 per cent and the latter at the rate of 7½ per cent on the annual value. The average annual income is about Rs. 20,000 with its corresponding expenditure per year.

Lalgunj is an ancient place. Singhia, a mohalla under this Municipality, is reputed to have been the abode of an ancient Rishi Sri Sringheeji Maharaj. Singhia was an important place for saltpetre and other factories during the early days of British administration in Muzaffarpur district. Lalgunj had an important trade through river Gandak. It still has some trade by boats.

SITAMARHI MUNICIPALITY.

Sitamarhi was constituted a municipality in 1882, and had a Municipal Board consisting of 12 commissioners of whom 1 was *ex officio* and the rest were nominated. Now the Municipality has been divided into 24 wards. Formerly, there were only 4 plural-seated wards, and 12 municipal commissioners who were elected on the basis of adult franchise. The rates of taxes are fixed at 10 per cent on holdings and 7½ per cent on latrines. Two fairs, namely *Ramnavami mela* and *Bibah Panchami mela* are held within the limits of the Municipality. The water supply has been taken up and electricity has been provided in the Sitamarhi town.

The Municipality maintains 6 miles of *pucca* roads and 1½ miles of *kutcha* roads. It has on the average an annual receipt of Rs. 1,21,474 and an annual expenditure of Rs. 99,837.

The receipt and expenditure for the year 1952-53 showing a deficit finance are as follows :—

Receipt, 1952-53.	Rs.	Expenditure, 1952-53.	Rs.
1. Municipal taxes on holding and latrine.	45,602	1. Office establishment ...	3,220
		2. Collection charges ...	4,914
2. Registration and license fees.	12,517	3. Public safety ...	7,750
		4. Public Health ...	32,247
3. Revenue derived from municipal properties, etc.	11,721	5. Medical	23,455
		6. Public Works ...	16,981
4. Grants and contribution	39,803	7. Public Instruction ...	9,811
5. Miscellaneous	8,522	8. Miscellaneous ..	26,906
6. Advance	21,969	9. Advance	23,135
7. Deposits	8,666	10. Deposits ...	6,078
		11. Repayment of loans ...	4,000
Total—	1,48,800	12. Contribution ...	16,156
		Total—	1,74,053

DUMRA NOTIFIED AREA COMMITTEE, SITAMARHI.

As a sequel to the last great Earthquake in 1934 the Court was shifted to Dumra in 1936, 3 miles away from Sitamarhi town. The Dumra Notified Area Committee was constituted under section 388 of the Bihar and Orissa Municipal Act of 1922 in the year 1937. Initially the Government nominated 4 officials and one non-official as members with Subdivisional Officer as *ex officio* Chairman for carrying the administration. The number of non-official members was increased to 4 in 1938. This was further increased to 7 in the year 1947. The last nomination was made in December, 1952 constituting a Board of 11 members of whom 4 were *ex officio* members.

The total area up to 1952 was one square mile. This has increased to 2 square miles in the present year. There is a population of 3,000 within the notified area. There are six wards and the present Board contains nominated non-official representatives from each ward. Holding and latrine taxes are levied at the rate of 12½ per cent and 6¼ per cent respectively on the annual valuation of holdings.

There is no well providing drinking water within the area. The Public Health Department has provided the Government residential quarters with tube-wells. The public depends on 10 tube-wells sunk by the Dumra Notified Area Committee in different wards on road sides. The total number of such tube-wells falls rather short of the actual requirement of the area.

There is no drainage within the area which remains water-logged during the rains leading to outbreak of malaria.

The Committee maintains 26 miles of *pucca* and 3.66 miles of *kutcha* roads. The present annual receipt including Government grant is about Rs. 27,000 and the annual expenditure about Rs. 25,000.

APPENDIX A.

Statement showing annual receipt of Muzaffarpur District Board for ten years indicating main heads of receipt.

GOVERNMENT GRANT.

Year.	Cess.	Interest.	Education.	Public Health —Medical.	Miscellaneous.	Civil Works.	Total Annual receipt.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs	Rs.
1942-43	5,67,862	7,801	2,62,509	36,394	9,772	64,501	10,24,389
1943-44	6,78,051	12,715	2,62,509	40,738	35,299	76,572	12,12,623
1944-45	6,11,676	7,433	2,62,509	46,532	47,374	60,728	11,48,677
1945-46	8,01,581	6.214	2,62,914	78,156	28,336	74,979	13,79,802
1946-47	8,56,346	12,600	3,99,197	62,656	1,11,995	1,23,890	16,81,020
1947-48	8,66,180	11,813	3,40,810	2,29,014	4,32,804	26,836	20,54,610
1948-49	7,66,885	11,824	3,39,516	89,628	6,07,808	43,026	26,31,230
1949-50	8,41,604	11,699	11,75,834	1,00,833	5,64,019	4,07,611	32,27,462
1950-51	9.97,630	17,603	10,48,122	59,090	5,55,514	2,64,592	30,81,654
1951-52	9,43,370	17,840	12,64,820	40,860	6,87,723	2,98,597	33,90,500
Total ..	79,31,185	1,17,542	56,18,740	7,83,901	30,80,644	14,41,334	2,02,32,867
Average	7,93,118	11,754	5,61,874	78,390	3,08,064	1,44,133	20,23,286
	8,04,872				10,92,461		

APPENDIX B.

Statement showing annual expenditure of Muzaffarpur District Board for ten years including main heads of expenditure.

Year.	Establishment.	Police.	Education.	Public Health.	Medical.	Veterinary.	Provident Fund.	Stationery.	Civil Works.	Annual expenditure.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1942-43 .. .	54,712	994	4,29,251	55,0[illegible]3	1,11,436	24,933	19,922	10,814	3,39,975	10,56,882
1943-44	72,132	920	4,58,945	50,176	1,38,882	18,792	18,541	13,013	3,79,380	11,61,411
1944-45	77,903	964	4,05,392	71,447	1,25,957	30,658	11,998	6,695	3,51,694	10,92,192
1945-46	82,905	984	5,10,739	89,357	1,13,525	33,639	28,503	4,354	4,40,861	13,23,720
1946-47	91,096	1,287	7,74,969	1,25,864	1,39,621	29,735	34,141	9,972	5,23,174	17,36,522
1947-48	1,65,018	1,756	9,67,326	1,37,431	1,59,395	31,045	48,865	11,120	4,76,192	20,06,359
1948-49	1,14,947	1,807	10,49,185	1,43,852	1,53,853	31,731	47,933	14,188	4,91,033	21,65,307
1949-50	1,34,419	1,785	14,20,498	1,90,469	1,66,993	35,043	48,500	22,147	6,60,986	26,91,327
1950-51	1,43,321	2,282	16,37,429	1,67,715	1,87,206	39,104	72,106	17,326	8,01,001	30,83,160
1951-52	1,46,681	2,373	16,39,061	2,05,841	1,59,317	42,165	90,912	5,759	8,41,264	31,78,748
Total ..	10,73,224	15,152	92,92,795	12,37,177	14,86,189	3,16,845	4,21,421	1,15,388	53,15,560	1,94,95,628
Average ..	1,07,322	1,515	9,29,279	1,23,717	1,48,613	31,684	42,142	11,538	5,31,556	19,49,562

CHAPTER XI.

COMMUNICATION.

COMMUNICATION IN THE EARLY YEARS OF BRITISH ADMINISTRATION.

The district of Muzaffarpur was a part of Sarkar Tirhut which had passed with the rest of Bihar under British rule in 1764 when the decisive battle of Buxar finally made the British masters of lower provinces of Bengal. Sarkar Tirhut comprised the modern districts of Muzaffarpur and Darbhanga. The separate district of Muzaffarpur was created in 1875

Regarding the state of communication in the district of Muzaffarpur before the advent of the British rule it may be recalled that while Darbhanga was the political centre, Hajipur in Muzaffarpur district was the revenue centre. In the Muhammadan period it has been known that at one time seventy thousand horses were maintained at Darbhanga, Hajipur, Mahnar, etc., where important trade centres and the subordinates for revenue collection were located. Another significant factor was that almost invariably the marauding hordes from Delhi downwards for loot or for territorial aggression would usually avoid the Grand Trunk Road and make a detour by the roads (even if they were not fully developed) which ran parallel or near about the Nepal frontiers. The reason may be that there were stronger men with large landed interests by the side of the Grand Trunk Road, who might have opposed the onward march. The existence of scattered villages or townships with a large proportion of Muslims in the population near about the roads of North Bihar and particularly near the frontiers of Nepal support this theory. As a matter of fact if one studies this aspect, he may find that the trend of Muslim population on the borders of North Bihar ultimately fanned out into East Pakistan after crossing the limits of the district of Purnea.

It will not be correct to say that North Bihar did not have important roads in pre-British days. The road economics of North Bihar is very much fettered by the scarcity of proper materials for road construction, such as, stone-chips, morum, etc., and the many rivers that pass through the district partially rob the roads of some importance. There could still be a Grand Trunk Road for North Bihar, as one can say it existed in pre-British days, although not properly systematized. This proposed Grand Trunk Road for North Bihar, if ever executed, will connect the districts of Muzaffarpur with Darbhanga on one side and Bettiah on the other, while Hajipur will remain as a very important station in the middle.

The economic condition of the district in the pre-British days had a very important feature in *melas* and fairs. Throughout North Bihar and particularly in Muzaffarpur district there are a large number of *melas* well distributed in the year, but with a particular concentration

during the months when the villagers are comparatively free from agricultural operations and have got some cash in hand owing to the advent of new crops. The original factors behind the *melas* might have been religious or economic, but gradually the *melas* have become great social centres and a clearing house for commodities. Some of the *melas* in the district is noticed in detail in a separate chapter. What is sought to be impressed here is that the many *melas* and fairs in the district which still continue led to the development of communication, either by road or by water.

It appears that owing to the uncertain times and want of a strong central power, the local administration in North Bihar including the district of Muzaffarpur had become rather weak. As a result, several small ruling chiefs raised their heads and existed more to enrich themselves than to stabilize the administration by concrete steps, such as, the construction of good roads. From the advent of the British rule in 1764 till the rise of the planters about a century after the roads in Muzaffarpur district were rather neglected.

The Old Correspondence in the early years of British rule maintained in the Collectorate Record Rooms, however, indicate that the trade routes were blocked by freebooting zamindars and it was almost nobody's concern to develop the means of communication. In a letter addressed to Hon'ble Charles Steward, President and Member of the Board of Revenue on 5th February, 1790, the Collector of Tirhut made the following observations :—

> "I cannot forbear now that I am writing of Tirhut to remark that whilst many indulge their fancy in expatiating on the natural advantages of this district, the richness of its soil and its multifarious streams. not a single individual stops to reflect that along their solitary banks, scarce hamlet is to be seen and for miles and miles not a human footstep to be traced. *Golas*, *Gunges*, Bazars, *Beoparies*, manufacturers, the inland trader and the foreign purchasers (without which rivers flow to no purpose and the earth's productive to no end) exist only in imagination. From one town to another even the high roads (on which the traveller and the merchants used formerly to pursue their journey in safety and in ease) are in some parts choked up with weeds and grass and in others are excavated by the periodical rains. In such a province if Government will be at no expense; if its roads are not to be repaired; if its inhabitants that now occupy and enrich the adjacent country are not to be invited back by suitable indulgences and merchants and manufacturers, all which it once had are not encouraged to settle in it upon terms that might allure their service and excite their industry, the Collector must be content to confine himself to the painful task of wringing from the hands of the laborious peasant his monthly portion of the annual revenue."

Since the earlier British administrators wanted to develop trade and industry with a view to obtain more revenue, Europeans were licensed to settle down in the interior of the district in the capacity of traders. In the 19th Century and earlier along with some other districts of North Bihar, Muzaffarpur was an important area for trade in indigo, opium, salt-petre and to some extent sugar. Due to the establishment of factories and godowns by the Europeans in connection with business in indigo, opium, salt-petre and sugar some areas in the interior came to be well provided with roads. Previous to 1820, convicts used to be commonly employed for the construction or maintenance of the roads. The roads in the vicinity of factories and godowns were maintained by the persons interested in their trade. Zamindars of the locality paid little attention to the roads with the result that the other roads were not properly maintained.

Apart from the particular commodities mentioned for which Muzaffarpur was an important zone in the 18th and the 19th Centuries, the Old English Correspondence in the Record Rooms show that in 1800 the articles imported into the district consisted of fine rice, salt, sugar of all kinds, cloves, cardamom, pepper, betel, cocoanut, cotton, iron, shawls, fine cloths and muslins, etc. The articles exported from the district consisted of coarse rice, wheat, barley, *dal*, turmeric, tobacco, *ghee*, salt-petre, indigo and timber. Principal *hats* and trading towns in the 18th Century were Lal Gunge (Lalgunj), Hadjeepore (Hajipur) and Muzaffarpur. The mode of conveyance for the goods was mostly bullocks or bullock-carts or head load. The surplus produce used to be chiefly sent to Patna for the Calcutta and the western markets. The Old Correspondence Volumes of the 19th Century in Muzaffarpur Collectorate also mention a certain amount of trade with Nepal. The principal *hats* and trading towns with Muzaffarpur district were inter connected with roads. There used to be mostly undeveloped pathways from Muzaffarpur to the interior of Nepal which were used by Nepalese who came down in the dry season with certain commodities for barter in the Muzaffarpur district. The commodities used to be brought down or taken away by pack-animals. Waterways were fairly developed as the bulk of the trade with Patna and Calcutta used to be done through the waterways. *Bajrahs* or big boats of 1,000-maund capacity were common. Singhia and Lalgunj were important trade centres for water-borne merchandise in 18th and 19th Centuries. Singhia has been shown in Rennel's Map of 1778.

The following extract from a report written by the Collector of Tirhut in 1829 quoted in the last District Gazetteer of Muzaffarpur by O'Malley will show the improvements since 1790 as pictured in the quotation from the Collector's letter to the Board quoted before :—

> "The roads are not under my control, but under that of the Magistrate, who usually repairs them with his prisoners as far as they can be conveniently sent. The zamindars do little or nothing in the way. The roads in the

> immediate vicinity of the different indigo factories are usually in good order, but they are kept solely at the expense of the proprietors of the factories. The roads in most directions from Muzaffarpur are in good order, but the roads or bye-ways in the interior of the district are very bad and barely passable for hackeries. There are a number of *jheels* in the district, therefore, bullocks are not much used; hackeries are, however, used near the indigo factories, and occasionally towards the northward, but the wear and tear of the same is great in consequence of the usually bad state of the roads. Owing to the number of streams much of the produce of the district is conveyed by water. Where the roads are good, it is either owing to their being repaired by the Magistrate or the planters."

Postal communication was more or less confined for administrative purposes. The Collector of the district was also the Postmaster. *Daks* used to be carried by postal runners and there were postal *ghatis* or centres for the change of the runners. The Police through the village chaukidars also used to distribute the *daks*.

As mentioned before, the district along with the other districts in North Bihar owes quite a lot to the European planters for a large number of roadways. By the end of the 19th Century it may safely be said that there was a *kothi* of a European planter within every 10 to 15 miles. The *kothi* usually meant a consolidated block of land running from a hundred to a thousand acres or more in the midst of which will be the residential houses of the planters, their subordinates, vats for steeping indigo and the factories for the *khas* cultivation of the planters. There used to be extensive indigo cultivation in the villages at the instance of the planters. The indigo plants from the interior villages had to be brought to the factory site in the *kothi* and the manufactured indigo in boxes had to be taken to the railhead and the riverhead for being exported. Apart from this the planters had a world of their own for social contacts and there would be frequent meets, races, dances, and parties, often interspersed with *shikar* of wild animals, crocodiles, birds and pigsticking. Besides the social meets at Muzaffarpur and other places in the district, there would be frequent meets in Champaran, Saran and Darbhanga districts. All this necessitated a fairly good system of roads. The soft soil of the district did not present any problem for making some sort of roads. It was easy to cut a road after the crops were removed. The rivers excepting one or two did not have a wide bed or a swift current throughout the year and *melnees* could easily be arranged to cross the rivers. The *melnees* were flat boats wide enough to carry loads, carts, and cars across the river.

A peculiar feature in Muzaffarpur district is that the Public Works Department for roads was brought into existence only a

few years back (1948).* This may have been due to the influence of the planters, who had a good deal of say in the local administration of the district and often controlled the Road Cess Committee, which was ultimately converted into the District Board. It is only when the condition of the roads in the district had considerably deteriorated that the State Government in the Public Works Department took over a number of important roads of North Bihar and particularly the inter-district roads. With the taking over of some of the main arteries of communication by the Public Works Department, there has been an enormous improvement of roads in spite of the bottle-neck of transhipment of goods across the Ganga. There is also another factor which affects the roads of the district. Coal, coaltar, cement, morum, stone-chips, bitumen, etc., have all to be brought to Muzaffarpur district from across Ganga river. The transport across the river has a bottle-neck.

Incidentally the advent of the Public Works Department in Muzaffarpur district only a few years back explains the existence of a very few rest houses or inspection bungalows by the roadside, unlike the districts of South Bihar. The planters had their houses thrown open to the fellow planters and the top European officials on the tours. There was hardly any need for proper inspection bungalows or rest houses for them. This want is being slowly removed.

The decline of the planters was complete in the thirties of this century. Synthetic indigo sold cheaper and the planters' regime had brought in a large number of evils mostly through the subordinate *amlas* (staff). The first struggle of Gandhiji in 1917 soon after his return from South Africa was on the soil of North Bihar to remove the evils of indigo plantation. His historic struggle brought in an Agrarian Act which removed most of the evils of *abwab*, forcible cultivation of indigo, obligatory sale of indigo plant at a cheap price, etc. The decline in the prestige of the planters, who had a tremendous influence on the European administrators and were mistaken as one with them by the common man was also a great factor which made most of the European planters sell their concerns to Indian zamindars and farmers. The latter, however, had no interest in maintaining the roads and all this meant an extra burden on the District Board. The democratization of the District Board which followed the removal of the District Magistrate as the Chairman did not always have a salutary effect on the maintenance of the links of communication. The position has been aggravated by large-scale sugarcane cultivation throughout the district. In a way indigo has been replaced by sugarcane cultivation. This cash crop has caught the imagination of the agriculturists in spite of the exhaustion of the soil, unless properly manured. A result of the extensive sugarcane cultivation is the existence of thousands of bullock carts throughout the district. The iron-shod wheels of the carts

*The Public Works Department had functioned for Government buildings only prior to 1948.

damage considerably the roads. Not even one per cent of the cart wheels have been replaced by tyred wheels, although many of the cart-owners can afford this. The roads of the district covering more than twelve hundred miles, are much too damaged by these carts. The District Board has not chosen to tax the bullock carts, although this source of a considerable receipt appears to be open to the Board.

ROAD CESS COMMITTEE, 1875.

A District Committee for Tirhut was created in 1870 for the administration of the funds set apart for the construction, repairs and maintenance of roads, bridges, etc., which were mainly derived from the cess.

With the establishment of a separate district of Muzaffarpur in 1875, a Road Cess Committee was established to look after the maintenance of roads, bridges and culverts, etc. It appears that in 1875 the mileage under the charge of the Road Cess Committee was 719. As a part of famine relief work the major part of the road was repaired during the famine of 1874. Bullock carts with iron-shod wheels were practically the only mode of conveyance for the transport of goods for the roadways. By 1885 the mileage was increased to 1,483. In 1895 the Road Cess Committee was reconstituted as the District Board and the mileage had increased by then to 1,679.

O'MALLEY'S DESCRIPTION OF THE ROADS, 1907.

In the last District Gazetteer of Muzaffarpur by O Malley (1907) it has been mentioned that the District Board maintained 1,226 miles of roads of which 82 miles were metalled, besides 543 miles of village roads. O'Malley mentioned that the District Board had paid special attention to the extension of roads as feeders to railways and over half a *lakh* of rupees was spent on the maintenance of the existing feeder roads during the quinquennium ending 1904-05. According to O'Malley the roads were maintained properly and even the unmetalled roads were so well kept that carriages could be driven over them without any severe jolting or discomfort. The important roads of the district in 1907 were the roads running from Hajipur through the towns of Muzaffarpur and Sitamarhi to Sonebarsa on Nepal frontier and the roads connecting Muzaffarpur town with Darbhanga, Motihari and Saran. Those were the days when the planters flourished.

Since the last District Gazetteer was compiled there has been a great development in industry, transport and communication. The traffic has considerably increased along with the development of trade and industry. Bullock carts and *palkis* carried by human agency have been replaced for long distance journey by power-propelled conveyance, *viz.*, motor cars, buses and trucks. To country crafts and *bajrahs* have been added modern power steamers and boats. Even in the country-side, *ekkas* drawn by single horses are slowly being replaced. Since the last war there has been an enormous development in the vehicular

traffic which has been encouraged by better maintained and more durable roads but at the same time it causes a severe strain on the roads.

ROADWAYS NOW.

The total mileage of the roads under the charge of the District Board prior to the recent transfer of some of the roads to Public Works Department was 1,044 under the District Board and 1,289 under the Local Board. Out of this, 246 miles were *pucca*, viz., metalled with brick-bats or *kankar* or with both, 1,175 miles *kutcha* and 912 miles of village roads. The length transferred to the Public Works Department consists of 42.50 miles of National Highway and 219.59 miles of State Highway. These roads are maintained from the State and Central grants. There are 20.3 miles of roads around sugar factory areas maintained from State grants.

NATIONAL HIGHWAY.

Alignment of National Highway no 28 constituting Muzaffarpur-Champaran border road and Muzaffarpur-Pusa roads passes through this district.

The Muzaffarpur-Champaran border road is 21.0 miles in length. It forms part of Raxaul (Nepal border)-Muzaffarpur-Hajipur road and connects the headquarters of the two districts at Motihari and Muzaffarpur. It runs parallel to the railway line and serves as a feeder to the Railway The road is bridged.

The Muzaffarpur-Pusa road is 17 miles long. The road is bridged and is motorable throughout the year.

Government of India have approved of the cost of improvement of Sitamarhi-Sursand road for the first phase only. The approved cost of improvement in the first phase amounts to Rs. 7.6 lakhs. The length of this road is 19.75 miles. This road has been provincialized.

PUBLIC WORKS DEPARTMENT ROADS.

The following roads are now under Public Works Department :—

	Name and classification.		Length in miles.
1.	Japaha-Minapur (Major District Highway)	...	8.00
2.	Hajipur-Muzaffarpur (Provincial Highway)	...	34 34
3.	Muzaffarpur-Sitamarhi (Provincial Highway)	...	36.75
4.	Muzaffarpur-Rewaghat (Major District Highway)		23.00
			102 09

Japaha-Minapur road is a portion of the Japaha-Belsund road, connecting Muzaffarpur town with Minapur police-station. The road serves an area without any railway communication. The road was taken over from District Board in 1946.

Hajipur-Muzaffarpur road was formerly classed as National Highway but before improvement could be completed it was dropped out of the scheme and was classified as Provincial Highway. A length of 3.04 miles was later on added to and treated as a part of this road.

Muzaffarpur-Sitamarhi road was taken over from District Board in 1949. A length of 0.46 mile under the Sitamarhi Municipality was later on added to this road. In the first mile of this road, a bridge over Burhi Gandak at Akharaghat has been constructed. It had cost Rs. 11.89 lakhs.

Muzaffarpur-Rewaghat road is a continuation of Chapra-Rewaghat road and connects the town of Muzaffarpur with the town of Chapra. There is ferry arrangement at the river.

EARTHQUAKE.

In the afternoon of the 15th January, 1934, there was the great Bihar Earthquake and Muzaffarpur was one of the districts that suffered very badly. The principal roadways were seriously affected by the Earthquake. Many of the high-banked roads were reduced to country level, a number of masonry and steel bridges had collapsed or were twisted. Wide fissures tore the surface of the roads. A sum of Rs. 7 lakhs was spent to open the communication and a further sum of Rs. 48 lakhs was spent to restore the roads, bridges and culverts. It took about five years to complete the constructions and improvements. But even after spending about 55 lakhs of rupees the roads which were affected by the Earthquake could not be restored to their previous level. Some of the roads came to be maintained only as fair-weather roads.

DIFFICULTIES IN ROAD MAINTENANCE.

Till the advent of the second World War there was a certain amount of rigid control on the vehicular traffic with a view to the proper maintenance of the roads. Heavy bus and truck traffic were not allowed over the roads specially on portions which were unmetalled. Previously vehicular traffic was also negligible. Labour was cheap and with the finances available, the District Board could just manage to maintain the roads in a tolerable condition. But the second World War brought about changed conditions. The allotment of funds for the maintenance of the roads remained more or less the same while the rates of labour and the price of the materials increased enormously. Some of the important requirements like cement, tar or bitumen became scarce or their supply was controlled. Besides Muzaffarpur district has one disadvantage that stone is not locally available. The type of *kankar* which is available is hardly suitable for heavy traffic. Rubber-tyred traffic is almost nil.

The incidence of the rise in the rate of wages and the price of materials still continues and at present it is about four times above the pre-war rates. The problem of maintaining the roads became more acute with an increased motor traffic and particularly of the heavier type. A Regional Transport Authority was set up in 1946 to give permits to taxis, buses and trucks. The District Board has since been faced with the problem of buses and trucks using some roads which were hardly meant for such heavy traffic. As a result some of the roads have deteriorated very badly. The road connecting Muzaffarpur, the district headquarters, with the subdivisional headquarters of Sitamarhi, an important business centre, has a length of 37 miles and passes through some important villages. The condition of this road and the bridges on it had become so deplorable that in 1947-49 it used to take three to four hours to negotiate this distance by a car. During those years people would rather go from Muzaffarpur to Sitamarhi by train *via* Samastipur and Darbhanga which meant a railway journey for about 6 to 7 hours. This road has now been taken over by the Public Works Department and was converted into an all-weather road. The District Board has, however, partially been relieved of their responsibility by the transfer of some of the important roads to the Public Works Department.

Bridges and Culverts under the District Board.

There are 33,256 feet of waterways in the shape of major bridges, minor bridges and culverts. Out of this 7,166 feet have been transferred to the charge of the Public Works Department.

Some of the Principal Roads.

Sitamarhi road no. 1.

This road connects Muzaffarpur, the district headquarters, with the subdivisional headquarters of Sitamarhi, an important business centre for rice, other food-grains and timber. The length of the road is 37 miles. The road passes through the important villages of Rampurhari, Saidpur and Carha, etc. This is an all-weather road maintained by the Public Works Department.

Darbhanga road no. 2.

This road connects Muzaffarpur, the district headquarters, with Laheriasarai, the headquarters of Darbhanga district, and passes through the important villages of Ather, Berua and Benibad of Muzaffarpur district and Kansay and Simri of Darbhanga district. The total length of the road is 37 miles and up to the border of Muzaffarpur district is 26 miles.

Pusa road no. 3.

This road connects Muzaffarpur with Samastipur *via* Pusa and Tajpur and also connects Darbhanga *via* Saidpur Bridge. The total length of the road in Muzaffarpur district is 18 miles. This passes

through the important villages of Rohua, Manika and Dholi in the district of Muzaffarpur.

Shahpur road no. 5.

This road connects Muzaffarpur with Mahua and Jandaha *via* Mustufapur road no. 63 and Mohaddinagar road no. 20 and connects the important railway station and village of Shahpur Patoree, an important centre for tobacco in the district of Darbhanga. The length of the road is 19 miles up to the junction of Mustufapur road no. 63.

Hajipur road no. 6.

This road connects Muzaffarpur, the district headquarters with the subdivisional headquarters of Hajipur and passes through the important villages of Turki. Kurhani, Bhagwanpur and Sarai. Total length of the road is 34 miles.

Rewaghat road no. 7.

This is the main road which connects Muzaffarpur with Chapra, the headquarters of the Saran district with a ferry at Rewaghat over river Gandak. The total length of the road in this district is 25 miles. It passes through the important villages of Patahi, Karja, Saraiya and Bakhra.

Deoria road no. 8.

This serves the area of Kanti and Paroo thanas which are not connected by roads. This road also connects Saran district *via* the important villages of Repura, Panapur, Barkagaon, Deoria and Dharfari in the district of Muzaffarpur with a ferry over river Gandak at Sohansi Ghat. The total length of the road in this district is 31 miles.

Motihari road no. 9.

This road connects the district headquarters of Muzaffarpur with Motihari, the district headquarters of Champaran and passes through the important villages of Kanti, Motipur and Mahuwal in this district. The total length of the road within the district is 23 miles.

Sahebganj road no. 10.

This road connects Motipur, an important market with a sugar mill, with Sahebganj which has a considerable grain business. The total length of the road is 16 miles.

Bettiah road no. 11.

This is an inter-district road which starts from Lalganj, a thana headquarters of Hajipur subdivision and connects the district with Bettiah and subsequently goes to Nepal *via* the important villages of Bhagwanpur Ratti, Daudnagar, Amwara, Basaitha, Deoria and Sahebganj. The total length of the road in this district is 36 miles.

Lalganj road no. 16.

This road connects the subdivisional headquarters of Hajipur with Lalganj thana headquarters and an important business centre and passes through the villages of Ghataro and Harauli. The total length of the road is 21 miles.

Mahua road no. 17.

This is also an inter-district road which starts from Hajipur and passing through Mahua, Sukki in Hajipur subdivision and Dihuli in Sadar subdivision enters the district of Darbhanga near Pusa. The total length of the road in this district is 32 miles.

Mahnar road no. 19.

This road joins Hajipur with the thana headquarters of Mahnar and then leads to Darbhanga district passing through the important villages of Bhairopur, Bidupur, Mahnar and Hasanpur. The total length of the road in this district is 23 miles.

Mohaddinagar road no. 20.

This road joins Mahua, an important thana and business centre, with Jandaha and subsequently runs to Shahpur Patoree railway station in the district of Darbhanga. The total length of the road is 16 miles.

Sursand road no. 23

This is an important road with a length of 32 miles. It starts from Bishunpur and passes through the important villages of Gaura, Koili, Nanpur, Bahera, Pupri (an important business centre), Sursand, another important business centre and joins Bela road no. 31 at Parihar.

Pupri road no. 24.

This road starts from Sitamarhi and joins Pupri, a thana headquarters and then leads to Darbhanga district. The total length of the road within the district of Muzaffarpur is 24 miles.

Sheohar road no. 25.

This road starts from Sitamarhi and connects Sheohar, an important thana. The road is 16 miles in length and passes through the important villages of Dhanger, Dikuli and Parsauni.

The following roads were taken up in First Five-Year Plan either for the first phase or the second phase :—

First phase.

(1) Jhapha-Minapur road—8 miles.
(2) Muzaffarpur-Sitamarhi road—37 miles.
(3) Muzaffarpur-Rewaghat road—23 miles.
(4) Mahnar-Mahnar Bazar road—4 miles.
(5) Muzaffarpur-Hajipur road 34.25 miles.
(6) Muzaffarpur-Champaran Border road—21 miles.

Second phase.

(1) Hajipur-Bhairopur-Mahnar road—19 miles.

(2) Muzaffarpur-Pusa road—17 miles.

All these roads have been improved and thrown open to passenger buses and carriers, both private and public. The number of passengers using the service buses is very large. An enormous goods traffic is also carried on through the carriers, private and public. No precise data are, however, available to show the number of passengers or the volume of goods traffic that are catered for by the vehicular traffic both inward and outward.

ARBORICULTURE.

Muzaffarpur is fortunate in having fairly long avenues along the roads. The initiative of planting trees along the road was taken by Mr. C. F. Worsley, a former Collector. Extensive plantation was done between the years 1877 and 1901 and a sum of about Rs. 69,000 was spent.

The dead trees are replaced and effort is made to maintain the avenue. *Simal, babul, sal, jamun,* mango are some of the trees by the roadside. There is a great scope for a proper plantation which is not being kept up.

During the scarcity of 1951 *sisum* plantation was done along the roads. Though due to drought the plantation was not very successful but a good percentage has survived and in the years to come they will prove a useful property for the District Board.

ROAD FINANCES.

The average expenditure in repairs and improvement of roads during 1876-77 was Rs. 20,000 which was increased to Rs. 1,30,000 in the year 1886-87 and to Rs. 1,70,000 in 1904-05. The average annual expenditure on roads prior to the second World War, *viz.*, 1939-40 was Rs. 2,30,036. As the cost of labour was cheap and the roads were improved and restored out of the Earthquake grant, all the roads under District Board and Local Boards were in a fairly good condition and the amount available was just sufficient to maintain the roads.

The amount spent on repairs to roads during the year 1952-53 is as follows :—

			Rs.
(*i*) Maintenance, repairs and minor improvements			1,88,706
(*ii*) New construction	...	...	1,77,431
(*iii*) Administration charges	...	...	1,23,687

The main sources of expenditure on roads are—(*i*) Road Fund; (*ii*) Provincial revenue, (*iii*) Local Fund, and (*iv*) Special loans raised for construction of new roads.

The main sources of income for maintenance of roads under the District Board are road cess, grants from the Government and a small amount received every year out of motor vehicle taxation. No loans have been raised so far for construction of new roads.

VEHICULAR TRAFFIC.

Bullock carts have been in existence since the ancient days. The recent wholesome change very slowly coming in is the substitution of tyre wheels in place of iron-shod wheels. Light vehicles drawn by a single pony known as *ekka* have been in vogue since a very long time. *Ekkas* are, however, on the decline because of power propelled faster vehicles. It is understood the first motor car was brought to Muzaffarpur in 1910. The hand rickshaw was introduced in 1937 while the cycle rickshaw came into vogue in 1940. The first passenger bus and the first public carrier were introduced in 1946.

STATISTICS OF VEHICLES.

The statistics for 1954 of different kinds of vehicles are given below :—

(*i*) Motor Taxis—3.
(*ii*) Motor Cars—332.
(*iii*) Motor Buses—84.
(*iv*) Motor Trucks—251.
(*v*) Motor Cycles—26.
(*vi*) Bullock carts—40,000 (roughly).
(*vii*) Bicycles—No figure is available.
(*viii*) Rickshaws—1,300.
(*ix*) Horse carriages—100.
(*x*) Hand carts—100.

WATER TRANSPORT.

The district has got a number of rivers and rivulets of which the more important from transport point of view are Naraini Gandak and Burhi Gandak, Baghmati, old and new, Adhwara and Sicau. Naraini Gandak remains navigable all the year round and grains, timber and other commodities are carried by these rivers and taken to different places lying in the western boundary of the district namely, Mahnar, Bhairopur, Hajipur, Lalganj and Rewaghat. Burhi Gandak is navigable for heavy boats only during rainy season when merchandise is carried by boats to Muzaffarpur from West Bengal. *Sal* logs are brought down from Nepal by river Burhi Gandak and Baghmati. A mail cargo steamer service plies between Mahnar and Patna and then onward to Bengal. Steamers ply between Patna and Hajipur during rainy season only when Naraini Gandak remains full.

LOCAL FERRIES.

There are ferries on all the important rivers where they cross the District and Local Board roads. These are settled by the District Board and the ferry farmers realise tolls from passengers and goods as per rates approved by the District Board. The number of rivers and rivulets being large the ferries are very important to maintain the link of communication besides clearing a large volume of merchandise.

Following are the more important ferries in the district :—

(1) Atherghat.
(2) Amer-Chechar-Rapura.
(3) Balha-Basanta.
(4) Madhopur-Bangra.
(5) Sohansi-Sarangpur Saguni.
(6) Simra-Jalalpur-Barway.

Two ferries were served with pontoon bridges both over the Burhi Gandak, one at Akharaghat on Muzaffarpur-Sitamarhi road and the other at Atherghat on Muzaffarpur-Darbhanga road. Since the transfer of Muzaffarpur-Sitamarhi road to Public Works Department, the toll on Akharaghat pontoon bridge has been abolished. Now a cement concrete bridge has been put up at this place by the Public Works Department. Toll is still realised at Atherghat pontoon bridge. It is not possible to have an estimate of the volume of trade carried through these ferries as no statistics are maintained. Generally on each ferry, a *melnee* is maintained along with one or two *dakota* boats for the crossing of the passengers and regular traffic.

BRIDGES.

The important bridges are described as follows :—

(i) *Cement concrete bridge over river Burhi Gandak.*—This bridge has been recently constructed at Akharaghat in place of the previous pontoon bridge over river Burhi Gandak under the supervision of the Public Works Department. The total cost of its construction is estimated to be 18 lakhs of rupees.

(ii) *Pontoon bridge at Atherghat.*—This is also over river Burhi Gandak and was constructed in 1895. The cost of this bridge at that time was Rs. 91,000.

(iii) *Buniyadganj girder bridge.*—This bridge is over old Baghmati and was constructed by Messrs. Jessop and Co., Calcutta. The amount spent over its construction is not available.

(iv) *Tabular girder bridge at Benibad.*—This bridge is also over old Baghmati called Siari. It is reported that this was originally constructed by the Maharaja of Darbhanga and was subsequently repaired after the Earthquake by the District Board.

REST HOUSES.

There are Circuit Houses maintained by Government at Muzaffarpur, Sitamarhi and Hajipur. There is an Inspection Bungalow at Sitamarhi and a Youth Hostel at Vaisali. The District Board maintains a furnished Dak Bungalow at Muzaffarpur and also Inspection Bungalows at Hajipur, Gaighutty, Pupri, Dumra, Sitamarhi and Lowton. The District Board also maintains Rest Houses at Sahebganj, Aurai, Sursand and Sheohar, for the benefit of the out-door staff of the District Board. Food has to be arranged for at all these places. The reasons for a much lesser number of Inspection Bungalows in this district have been given before.

There are *dharamshalas* at Muzaffarpur, Sitamarhi, Hajipur, Pupri and Bairagnia founded by philanthropists where free lodging is available. The Muzaffarpur Municipality maintains one *sarai* or rest-shed at Muzaffarpur. Hotel accommodation is available at Muzaffarpur, Sitamarhi and Hajipur but the standard is very low. There are way-side eating places on all the principal roads where some sort of lodging is also available.

RAILWAYS.

The civil district of Muzaffarpur is served with four-meter gauge lines, namely,—

(*a*) Hajipur-Muzaffarpur-Samastipur trunk line.

(*b*) Hajipur-Bachhwara main line (chord),

(*c*) Samastipur-Narkatiaganj main line, and

(*d*) Muzaffarpur-Narkatiaganj main line *via* Motihari.

This Railway was first established by the Tirhut State Railway and the name was changed on the 18th July 1890 to Bengal and North-Western Railway. It was renamed on the 1st January, 1943 as the Oudh Tirhut Railway. The name was again changed to North-Eastern Railway on the 14th April, 1952 when the zonal system was adopted and a regional headquarters was established at Muzaffarpur.

The Railway system in the district is distributed as follows :—

(*a*) The trunk line *via* Muzaffarpur enters the district *after* the Gandak river between Sonepore and Hajipur and leaves the district after Dholi railway station. It serves important places as Sarai, Goraul, Bhagwanpur, Turki, Kurhani, Muzaffarpur and Dholi.

(*b*) The main line (chord) between Hajipur and Bachhwara starts from Hajipur and leaves the district at the bridge between Mahnar Road and Shahpur Patoree railway station. It serves the area of Hajipur subdivision which runs along the Gandak.

(c) The main line Samastipur to Narkatiaganj enters the district after Jogiara station and passing through Sitamarhi leaves the district after Bairagnia station. It serves the important places of Pupri, Sitamarhi and Riga. The name of the station for Pupri is Janakpur Road. From this station a District Board road leads to Janakpur, a place of pilgrimage in Nepal territory.

(d) The main line Muzaffarpur to Narkatiaganj starts from Muzaffarpur and leaves the district after Mahwal station. It serves the area of Kanti and Motipur.

The total mileage of the Railway system in the district is 137. Considerable improvements have been made in providing amenities for the travelling public in the trains and at the railway stations since the publication of last Gazetteer. These include provision of platforms, benches, drinking water taps, hand pumps, additional booking windows, planting of shady trees and pan type latrines on the stations on Hajipur-Bachhwara section and provision of additional benches, lighting arrangements, drinking water arrangements, raised platforms, additional booking facilities, planting of shady trees at most of the stations on the other trunk and main lines. Platform shelters have been provided at Hajipur, Muzaffarpur and Dholi stations. Improvements to waiting rooms at Hajipur, Goraul, Muzaffarpur and Jogiara have been made. Bathing cubicles have been provided at Muzaffarpur railway station. There is scope for further amenities to the passengers.*

Through Railway the agricultural products are sent out from Sitamarhi, Pupri (Janakpur Road railway station), Muzaffarpur, Hajipur, Desari and Mahnar. The manufactured goods and iron materials are brought through the railway to Hajipur, Muzaffarpur, Sitamarhi and Pupri (Janakpur Road railway station).

The Railway also helps import and export with Nepal. Commodities imported to Nepal are salt, iron, mustard oil, lime, cotton piece goods, brass, from Janakpur Road station and cement, coal, and empty gunny bags from Bairagnia railway station, whereas commodities exported from Nepal include tea and mixed grains to Hajipur, linseeds, rice, paddy, jute to Janakpur Road and grains, hides, oil-seeds and oil-cake to Bairagnia.

The district of Muzaffarpur is famous for several places of pilgrimage and religious festivals. The most important religious festival is that of *Kartik Purnima mela* which takes place on both the sides of river Gandak at Sonepore in the district of Saran and at Hajipur in the district of Muzaffarpur. The Railways cater for *mela* traffic. Other important festivals catered by the railway include

*The O. T. Railway was commonly described as the Old and Tired' Railway because of the enormous delays that had become common. There is scope for more trains running to scheduled timings. Roof-riding owing to congestion is not an uncommon sight.

Ramnavmi Fair at Sitamarhi and Janakpur Road, Bhagwati Bridge Fair at Dheng and Bairagnia, *Basant Pachmi* Fair at Janakpur Road and Sitamarhi and Haldi *Mela* at Motipur.

The main railway stations are Muzaffarpur, Hajipur, Sitamarhi and Bairagnia. Details of daily average traffic for these stations are given below :—

Name of stations.	Average number of passengers booked daily outward.	Average daily sale-proceeds of tickets sold.	Average number of passengers received daily.	Average quantity of goods booked outward.	Average quantity of goods received daily.	Remarks.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
		Rs.		Maunds.	Maunds.	
Muzaffarpur	41,361	7,365	4,307	229	8,567	80,000 baskets of litchies (average) are booked from this station for destinations in North Bihar and Uttar Pradesh, West Bengal and Assam by parcel during the litchi season yearly.
Hajipur ...	1,412	1,036	1,500	847	1,393	
Sitamarhi	1,341	1,490	786	2,100	4 000	
Bairagnia	560	880	440	825	721	

The inward and outward traffic in goods commodities to other stations of Muzaffarpur civil district is as follows :—

Name of station.	Average quantity of goods received daily.	Average quantity of goods booked outward daily.
	Mds.	Mds.
1. Bidupur ...	61	184
2. Chak Sikandar ...	7	18
3. Desari ...	315	155
4. Sahdai Buzurg ...	5	18
5. Mahnar Road ...	308	272
6. Sarai ...	15	25
7. Bhagwanpur ...	1,001	533
8. Goraul ...	7,025	1,450

Name of station.		Average quantity of goods received daily.		Average quantity of goods booked outward daily.
		Mds.		Mds.
9. Kurhani	...	300	...	100
10. Turki	...	19	...	40
11. Silout	...	25	...	50
12. Dholi	...	500	...	200
13. Jogiara	...	1	...	4
14. Janakpur Road	...	2,357	...	6,524
15. Bajpatti	...	10	...	300
16. Riga	...	1,400	...	1,967
17. Dheng	...	20	...	17
18. Kanti	...	Nil	...	3,000 (Sugarcane).
19. Motipur	...	1,580	...	3,197
20. Mahwal	...	5	...	5

AVIATION.

Muzaffarpur is the first district in the State of Bihar to have private pilots who owned their planes. The first plane was brought to Muzaffarpur by Mr. Bhabadev Mukherjee in the decade 1920—30 Later Mr. Fairweather who owned an automobile concern in Muzaffarpur had his own plane and his services as a pilot were of great help immediately after the great Bihar Earthquake. In the forties Mr. H. M. Weatherall of Messrs. Arthur Butler and Co., and Mr. Corbett, a businessman also had their own planes. Ex-Squadron-leader Majithia who bought the automobile concern of Mr. Fairweather brought his own plane to Muzaffarpur. It is from Muzaffarpur that in 1949 Mr. H. M. Weatherall and Ex-Squadron-leader Majithia negotiated the first successful air trip from Muzaffarpur to Kathmandu in a " Bonanza " and theirs' was the first plane to land on the soil of Nepal when she alighted at the improvised airstrip on a football field at Kathmandu. These private aviators had popularised aviation in Muzaffarpur district.

Muzaffarpur has been put on the air map of India for civil aviation from time to time. There was one air service of Nalanda Airways between Patan and Muzaffarpur but after a short existence the Nalanda Airways stopped their service. The Bharat Airways linked up Muzaffarpur for sometime in their Calcutta and Kathmandu route. At the moment Muzaffarpur is connected by air in the route between Calcutta-Muzaffarpur-Patna-Kathmandu route of the Air Lines Corporation. By air the journey from Muzaffarpur to Patna takes about 20 minutes as against six hours by the train. Calcutta could be reached in 2 hours by air from Muzaffarpur while the train journey will take more than 15 hours. The present bottle-neck of goods

traffic at Mokamehghat should encourage an air freighter service to Muzaffarpur from Calcutta and Patna. The neighbouring district of Darbhanga has a freighter air service from Calcutta to Darbhanga.

There is one landing ground at Patahi, six miles off from Muzaffarpur on Muzaffarpur-Rewaghat road. This landing ground is being modernised for an all-year round air service. The present airstrip has no proper terminal building or all-weather runway. Small planes can land in the *maidan* known as Race-course in the town of Muzaffarpur. There is also one landing ground for small planes at Dumra at a distance of 3 miles of Sitamarhi railway station.

Motor Transport Service.

There is no regular limited company to run the buses or trucks lines. Excepting the Ganga Motor Service of Muzaffarpur there is no other motor service owning a large number of buses. Private persons having one or two buses have been given permits for running the services. A list of routes showing bus services will be found later. There has been no nationalisation of the transport services in Muzaffarpur district so far. The bus and truck transport is administered through the North Bihar Regional Transport Authority with the Commissioner of the Tirhut Division as the Chairman. The number of buses plying in the district is nearly one hundred and of trucks nearly three hundred. The number is going up rapidly.

Posts, Telegraphs, Telephones and Wireless.

There are 41 post offices and 408 branch post offices in the district. About 3,010 square miles are served by the sub and branch offices. The details of the working of the post offices in the district of Muzaffarpur for 1952 are given below :—

Details.		
1. Total number of postal articles including letters, packets, news papers, parcels delivered.	...	1,04,45,376 nos.
		Amount.
2. Total value of money orders issued in the Muzaffarpur district.	...	Rs. 98,02,597-15-5.
3. Total value of money orders paid in the Muzaffarpur district.	...	Rs. 2,20,23,110-13-10.
4. Total value of Savings Banks deposits	...	Rs. 76,07,109-10-3.
5. Total value of Savings Banks withdrawals.	...	Rs. 72,64,835-10-8.
6. Total value of National Savings Certificates deposits.	...	Rs. 9,38,660-0-0.

Details.		Amount.
7. Total value of National Savings Certificates discharged.	...	Rs. 1,66,640-11-0.
8. Total value of 5-year Cash Certificates discharged.	...	Rs. 57,447-11-0.
9. Total number of registered parcels posted.	...	12,463 nos.
10. Total number of registered insured parcels posted.	...	2,245 nos.
11. Total number of registered letters and packets posted.	...	1,89,544 nos.
12. Total number of registered insured letters posted.	...	6,562 nos.
13. Total number of V. P. parcels posted	...	7,280 nos.
14. Total number of V. P. letters and packets received for delivery.	...	16,515 nos.
15. Total number of V. P. letters and packets posted for despatch.	...	8,922 nos.
16. Total number of messages received for delivery.	...	Figures not available as H. O. is a non-combined office.
17. Total number of messages booked	...	Figures not available as H. O. is a non-combined office.
18. The areas from where the bulk of money orders come.	...	From West Bengal specially from Calcutta and Assam.
19. The areas where the bulk of money orders are sent for payment.	...	Bombay, Madras. Chapra and Patna.

In 1952 there were 635 radio sets and the amount of license fee realised was Rs. 17,920. From the small number of the radio sets it cannot be said that radios have become popular in the district.

There are 27 telegraph offices but the figures of telegrams sent out or received are not available.

Muzaffarpur town is well served with telephones for both local and trunk calls. The board which was originally meant for 100 connections has been increased to 300 connections recently. There is no telephone exchange at Hajipur or Sitamarhi but public call offices have been recently established at both the places.

Muzaffarpur and the subdivisional headquarters of Sitamarhi and Hajipur are connected by wireless for administrative purpose.

Bus Routes in Muzaffarpur District.

(1) Muzaffarpur-Bedauli *via* Daudnagar and Amwara.
(2) Muzaffarpur-Daudnagar.
(3) Muzaffarpur-Darbhanga *via* Benibad.
(4) Muzaffarpur-Darbhanga *via* Pusa.
(5) Muzaffarpur-Samastipur.
(6) Muzaffarpur-Motihari *via* Mehsi and Chakia.
(7) Muzaffarpur-Sitamarhi.
(8) Muzaffarpur-Sheohar.
(9) Muzaffarpur-Sursand *via* Sitamarhi.
(10) Muzaffarpur-Sonbersa.
(11) Muzaffarpur-Belsund *via* Runisaidpur.
(12) Muzaffarpur-Katra *via* Runisaidpur and Aurai.
(13) Muzaffarpur-Katra *via* Benibad.
(14) Muzaffarpur-Sahebganj.
(15) Muzaffarpur-Fatehabad *via* Basaitha.
(16) Muzaffarpur-Bakhra.
(17) Muzaffarpur-Basaitha.
(18) Muzaffarpur-Vaishali.
(19) Muzaffarpur-Rewaghat.
(20) Muzaffarpur-Jaffarpur-Paro.
(21) Muzaffarpur-Motihari *via* Sahebganj.
(22) Muzaffarpur-Dharfari.
(23) Muzaffarpur-Hajipur-Mahua-Muzaffarpur.
(24) Muzaffarpur-Mahua.
(25) Sitamarhi-Sursand.
(26) Sitamarhi-Sonbersa.
(27) Sitamarhi-Sheohar.
(28) Sitamarhi-Bella.
(29) Belsand-Riga *via* Sitamarhi Court.
(30) Hajipur-Lalganj.

CHAPTER XII.

HISTORY.

The area covered by the present district of Muzaffarpur at first inhabited mostly by non-Aryan or mixed races, was occupied by the Aryans towards the end of the early Vedic age. If Jain tradition is to be relied on, it formed part of the kingdom of Videha, the city of Vaisali being its capital.[1] But this is contradicted by the Puranas as well as the Balakanda of the Ramayana, both of which mention Vaisali as a separate kingdom. Raja Vaisala, the founder of the kingdom of Vaisali has been represented to be a son of Iksvaku in the Ramayana; but the Puranas describe him as a son of Nabhaga. According to the Puranas, Sumati, who was a contemporary of Raja Dasaratha of Ayodhya, was tenth in descent from Vaisala. The Vishnupurana contains a list of thirty-four kings of Vaisali, showing that monarchy had a long history in this area. The Ramayana tells us that when Rama and his brother Lakshmana, accompanied by the sage Visvamitra, crossed the Ganga and reached its northern bank on their way to Mithila, they had a view of the city of Vaisali.[2] According to Visvamitra, all the kings of Vaisali had been long-lived, high-souled, possessed of strength and power, and highly virtuous.[3] The present village Basarh in Muzaffarpur district has been identified by Cunningham with the spot where stood the ancient capital of Vaisali. There is no doubt that the whole of the district was included in that kingdom.

REPUBLIC OF VAISALI.

As to how and when exactly the monarchical rule in Vaisali was replaced by an oligarchical republic nothing definitely can be said. In the Jain *Bhagavati Sutra* as well as the Buddhist *Anguttara Nikaya*, the name of the Vriji republic appears in the list of sixteen *mahajanapadas* which shows that the event must have occurred pretty long before 600 B. C. Bimbisara, the famous king of Magadha, who was a contemporary of the Buddha, is said to have married a Lichchhavi princess of Vaisali. The matrimonial alliance with the Lichchhavis must have strengthened his position. In fact the Lichchhavis formed the most important of the eight confederate clans included in the Vriji republic. Vaisali, the capital of the confederacy, was then at the height of its prosperity, and its citizens numbered 1,68,000. The Buddhist work *Mahavagga* describes it as containing " 7707 storeyed buildings, 7707 pinnacled buildings, 7707 Aramas and 7707 lotus-ponds ", with its rajas or chiefs also numbering 7707.[4]

It is mentioned in a Jataka passage that of the kings who were permanently residing and ruling in Vaisali, the number was seven thousand seven hundred and seven. The number of *uparajans* was the same, as also the number of *senapatis* and treasurers. The passage should not be interpreted literally; and the number 7,707 should be taken to mean that power was vested in a very large body of men. It

is not likely, however, that every member of the Great Assembly attended its meetings. In actual practice the voice of the elders seems to have prevailed.[5] The Buddha had a high opinion of the constitution of the Lichchhavis; and had declared that the Lichchhavi state could not succumb so long as the members of their assembly met in concord, and acted in accordance with the ancient institutions of Vaisali, so long as they honoured their elders and hearkened to their words. The system of voting was prevalent amongst the Lichchhavis, but matters were not usually pressed to a voting.

VAISALI IN JAIN AND BUDDHIST LITERATURE.

Vaisali figures prominently both in Jain and Buddhist literatures. The Jains, both Svetambaras and Digambaras, state that Vardhamana Mahavira was the son of one Siddhartha of Kundapura or Kundagrama, a suburb of Vaisali.[6] In a Jain sutra Mahavira has been described as a Vaisalika, meaning a native of Vaisali. It is said that Siddhartha's wife Trisula was sister to Chetaka of Vaisali.[7] It is no wonder, therefore, that Vaisali long continued to be a great stronghold of Jainism, and is frequently referred to in Jain scriptures. Mahavira's mother Trisula is described as a princess of Videha, and is said to have been related to Bimbisara, king of Magadha. The first visit of Gautama Buddha to Vaisali was in answer to an invitation of its inhabitants, who had sent a deputation to him imploring him to deliver them from a frightful pestilence which was desolating their country. The Buddha responded to the call, and coming to Vaisali drove away the plague, and made numerous converts. In the Mahavagga of the Buddhists we read that the Buddha, while sojourning at Kotigrama, gave an audience to the courtesan Ambapali, a woman of uncommon beauty, and also to the Lichchhavis of Vaisali. It is very probably that Kotigrama of the Buddhists is identical with Kundagrama of the Jains. During the fifth year of his ministry the Buddha re-visited Vaisali, living in the Kutagara or two-storeyed hall of Mahavana, a great forest stretching to the north of Vaisali. It was here that he established the Buddhist order of nuns, reluctantly yielding to the request of his widowed foster mother Gautami that women might be admitted to the congregation at the intercession of his favourite disciple Ananda. To Vaisali again he returned on his journey to Kusinara shortly before his death and stayed in the mango-grove of Ambapali, teaching and exhorting his disciples and expounding the law to Ananda.

ANNEXATION OF VAISALI TO MAGADHA.

Vaisali's fortunes were affected by the growth of Pataliputra beyond the Ganga. The importance of Vaisali though reduced appears to have been an eye-sore to the Magadha kings.

Ajatasatru, the son and successor of Bimbisara, was determined to annex Vaisali to the kingdom of Magadha. He is said to have obtained the Buddha's view. Although the Buddha did not give his consent to Ajatasatru's plan of conquest nothing could deter the Magadhan King

from his purpose. "I will root out these Vajjians", he said, "I will destroy these Vajjians. I will bring these Vajjians to utter ruin." In order to give effect to his desire Ajatasatru made great preparations for war against the Lichchhavis. He built a fort at Pataligrama and used *mahasilakantakas* (engines of destruction to hurl stones on the enemy) in the war.[8] Ajatasatru was successful in humbling the pride of the Lichchhavis. But though they might have been forced to acknowledge the suzerainty of Magadha, the republic does not appear to have been completely obliterated. In fact, Vaisali continued to be the centre of the political as well as religious life north of the Ganga. It contained a stupa erected by the Lichchhavis over some of the relics of the Buddha's body, and another enshrining some of the remains of his great disciple Ananda. It was crowded with Buddhist monasteries, and according to the account left by Hiuen Tsang several centuries later, both within and without the city all round it, the sacred places were so numerous that it would be difficult to recount them all. The second Great Buddhist Council was held at Vaisali in the reign of Kakavarni Kalasoka, a descendant of Sisunaga, who ruled in Magadha after the fall of the Bimbisarian dynasty. The Buddhist community was split up into two contending parties, the Theravadins and Mahasanghikas. A council of 700 monks was constituted under the Theravadins which compiled the teachings of the Great Master into a Tripitaka.

VAISALI DURING MAURYA AND SUBSEQUENT TIMES.

Vaisali must have formed part of the Maurya Empire at least down to the end of Asoka's reign. The city, lying as it did on the royal road from *Pataliputra* to Nepal, was visited by Asoka, who enriched it by a stupa and a lion-pillar. We know nothing of its history during the next few centuries, with the exception of a traditional raid by Kanishka, the Kushana king, who carried off to Gandhara the famous alms-bowl of the Buddha.[9] At the beginning of the fourth century A. D. Chandra Gupta I, who established a kingdom in Magadha, married the Lichchhavi princess Kumara Devi, and his son Samudra Gupta in his Allahabad Inscription takes pride in calling himself *Lichchhavi-dauhitra* (son of the daughter of the Lichchhavis). In the reign of Samudra Gupta's son Chandra Gupta II Vaisali was visited by the Chinese pilgrim Fa-Hien. It was not, however, until the visit of Hiuen Tsang about 635 A. D. that we find a detailed account of the country. He describes the State of Vaisali as about 1,000 miles in circuit. The soil was rich and fertile; and flowers and fruits were produced in abundance, the mango and the plantain being essentially plentiful. The climate was agreeable and temperate, the manners of the people were pure and honest; and they loved religion and highly esteemed learning. Hiuen Tsang's account of Vaisali also shows that Buddhism was on the decline even in that part of the country. The Jains were numerous, as might be expected in the birth-place of their religion. The old city of Vaisali was 60 or 70 *li* in circuit,[10] but it was

to a great extent in ruins. " At every step ", Hiuen Tsang writes " commanding sites and old foundations are seen, which the succession of seasons and lapse of years have entirely destroyed. "

UNDER PALA AND SENA DYNASTIES.

From the time of Hiuen Tsang there is practically no historical information regarding North Bihar until the ascendancy of the Pala dynasty. At the time of Hiuen Tsang's visit Muzaffarpur must have formed part of the dominions of Harsha of Kanyakubja who possessed full sovereign power over Bihar, Northern and Central Bengal. But after his death in or about 647 A. D. the local rajas asserted their independence, and Tirhut was probably under the rule of petty potentates. Late in the eighth century, Gopala, the founder of the Pala dynasty, became ruler of Bengal, and subsequently extended his sway westward over Bihar. In the eleventh century, Tirhut was wrested from the Palas by the ambitious kings of Chedi, and in 1019 A. D., it acknowledged the sovereignty of Gangeyadeva,[11] who aimed at attaining paramount power in Northern India. The end of that century witnessed the rise of the power of the Sena Kings, who not only wrested from the Palas their eastern provinces but also appear to have carried their arms north-westwards. Practically the whole of Tirhut including Mithila formed part of the kingdom of the Senas : and their rule in this part of Bihar is commemorated by the use of the Lakshmana Sena era, the first current year of which was apparently the eighth year of the accession of Lakshmana Sena, the last great king of the Sena dynasty.[12]

MUSLIM INVASION

At the close of the twelfth century, or the beginning of the thirteenth, the tide of Muslim conquest swept over Bihar, but it does not appear to have reached far north of the Ganga. Indeed it was not until the time of Ghyasuddin Ilias, the Mohammadan Governor of Bengal between 1211 and 1226, that we learn that he carried the banner of Islam into the territories of the Raja of Tirhut, which had never before been subdued by the Muslims, and compelled him to pay tribute. This appears, however, to have been rather a successful invasion than an effectual conquest of the country. For a local dynasty of Hindu kings was established about this time at Simraon in the north-east corner of the Champaran district, and these kings succeeded in maintaining their rule over Tirhut for over a century, until the invasion of Ghayasuddin Tughluq in 1323 finally put an end to their independence.

Of the earlier kings of the Simraon dynasty we have only traditional accounts.[13] Its founder was one Nana or Nanyupa Deva, who is said to have established himself at Simraon, and to have eventually subdued the whole of Mithila and to have overcome the king of Nepal. Tradition relates that one of his sons reigned in Nepal, and the other, Ganga Deva, in Mithila. There he is credited with having introduced the system of fiscal divisions or parganas for the purposes of revenue

administration, while a chaudhuri or headman was appointed in each pargana to collect the revenue, and panchayat was chosen to settle all disputes. Ganga Deva was succeeded by Narasingha Deva. His son and successor Rama Singha Deva was a pious devotee and a firm patron of sacred literature. Under his auspices several well-known commentaries on the Vedas were compiled. Various reforms of internal administration are attributed to this king. In every village, a police officer was appointed whose duty it was to make a daily report of all occurrences worthy of note to the chaudhuri or revenue-collector of the pargana. The rise of the system of *patwaris* or village accountants in North Bihar is ascribed to this period.

On the death of Rama Singha Deva, his son Sakti Singha ascended the throne; but his despotism appears to have offended the nobles, and one of his ministers established a council of seven elders as a check upon the autocratic power of the king. His son Hara Singha Deva, the last of the line, is said to have prepared records of the caste subdivisions of the Brahmanas and Karna Kayasthas within his dominions. In 1323 A. D. the Emperor Ghyasuddin Tughluq led his victorious forces into Tirhut on his march back from Bengal. The fort of Hara Singha was taken and he fled northwards into the valley of Nepal, where he is said to have reigned for the rest of his life.

SUGAONA DYNASTY.

With the flight of Hara Singha, Tirhut became a dependency of the Empire of Delhi. The Sultan placed it under Kameshwar Thakur, the founder of the Sugaona or Thakur dynasty, which continued to rule over Tirhut till early in the sixteenth century.[14] According to some authorities, Kameshwar was deposed in favour of his son Bhogishwara by Firuz Shah Tughluq. Perhaps the most famous prince of the Sugaona dynasty was Kirti Singha, who has been praised by the poet Vidyapati in his *Kirtilata*. It appears from this prose-work of Vidyapati that Muslim influence was well-established in Tirhut at this time. None the less, the chiefs of the Sugaona dynasty continued to rule, paying only a nominal tribute to the Delhi emperor. Raja Siva Singha was another illustrious ruler of this dynasty. Vidyapati, the immortal poet of Mithila has praised him and his queen Lakhima Devi in a large number of songs. Indeed the rulers of this dynasty were great patrons of learning and literature. Four of the most eminent writers of Tirhut, Jagaddhara, Vidyapati, Sankara and Vachaspati Misra, flourished during the rule of this dynasty.[15]

MUSLIM INFLUENCE.

Mohammadan supremacy was far more pronounced in the southern part of Tirhut than in the north. It appears that the Muslim armies generally marched in the northern part of Tirhut and other districts of North Bihar to take advantage of the fordability given and left behind a number of Muslim villages on the northern border. Hajipur, situated at the confluence of the Gandak and the Ganges, was a place

of great strategical importance. It was long the headquarters of the Governors of the rulers of Bengal and was the scene of more than one rebellion. In its neighbourhood Muslim influence was maintained through war. The town was an ancient urban site and came to be named after Haji Ilyas, king of Bengal (1345—58), who invaded and ravaged Tirhut, the frontier between the Bengal Kingdom and the Delhi Empire, and apparently built a fortress to consolidate his conquest. To punish him and his growing powers Firuz Tughluq invaded Tirhut in 1353 following hard after Haji Ilyas, who retreated to Pandua. The expedition was short and decisive, and after the entire defeat of Haji Ilyas, the Emperor returned to Delhi, appointing collectors to uphold his authority in Tirhut.

Shortly after this, Tirhut appears to have been annexed by the Sharqi kings of Jaunpur, and remained subject to them for about 100 years. They were then deprived of this outlying portion of their dominion by the Emperor Sikandar Lodi, who conquered Jaunpur and then in 1499 advanced against Hussain Shah, the independent king of Bengal. A treaty was concluded at Barh in which it was agreed that the Emperor should retain Bihar, Tirhut and Saran on condition that he should not invade Bengal, and Sikandar Lodi then swept down upon Tirhut. Unable to face the imperial forces, the Raja of Tirhut advanced to meet him, and was allowed to make terms on payment of a fine amounting to several lacs of rupees.[16] The treaty between the Emperor and the Bengal King was not observed for a long time. For in the early part of the sixteenth century, Hussain Shah's son and successor Nusrat Shah invaded Tirhut, put its Raja to death and appointed his son-in-law Alauddin to be its governor.[17] He then marched against Hajipur, and having subdued the neighbouring tract, placed it in charge of another son-in-law named Mukhdum Alam. Shortly afterwards, in 1538, the latter rose in revolt against his brother-in-law Mahmud Shah and made common cause with Sher Khan, who was at this time beginning to strive for the throne of Delhi, which he finally won.[18]

MUGHAL PERIOD.

Mahmud Shah was the last independent king of Bengal, and after his fall Tirhut again formed a part of the Delhi Empire. But the allegiance of its chieftains was very loose and they were practically independent. Babar, who won the throne of Delhi in 1526 after defeating Ibrahim Lodi at the Battle of Panipat, makes a mention of Tirhut in his Memoirs. Raja Rup Narain of Tirhut paid a tribute of about 5,25,000 silver *tankas* to the imperial exchequer.[19] In the reign of Akbar, Daud Khan, the Governor of Bengal, raised the standard of rebellion against the empire; and many of the Afghans who had settled down in North Bihar rallied round his banner. Akbar sent Khan-i-Khanan to crush the rebel and directed the Mughal chiefs and those Afghan chiefs of the neighbourhood, who were loyal to the empire, to assist him. Finally, Akbar himself marched to the south to assert his

rights, Daud Khan holding out against him in Patna. A picked force of 3,000 men was sent to attack the fort, the assault being delivered under the supervision of Akbar himself. The imperial troops were repulsed time after time, and it was not until large re-inforcements were sent up that the fort was taken by storm. The commandant together with the greater part of the garrison was slain; and their heads were sent to Daud Khan to show the fate which awaited him. With the fall of Patna, shortly afterwards, Bihar was lost to Daud Khan. It was placed under a separate Moghal Governor and Tirhut was included in the *subah* thus formed. Those chieftains who had assisted in maintaining the imperial authority were granted lands in the Hajipur Sarkar, where they settled with their followers. Subsequently in 1579, when they revolted, Azam Khan, the successor of Akbar's great finance Minister Todar Mal, bought them off by confirming them in possession of the lands they had already held and by granting them fresh lands. In this way a large number of petty Muslim chiefs with their followers were permanently settled to the south of Muzaffarpur.

Hajipur, however, lost its former importance with the transfer of the headquarters to Patna. Tirhut, deprived of its separate governor, no longer comes into prominence during the Mughal period; and its history for the next two centuries or so is merged in that of the province of which it formed part. During the reign of Aurangzeb, Sarkar Tirhut with Darbhanga as the Headquarters formed the biggest Sarkar in Bihar, containing 102 mahals, while Sarkar Hajipur consisted of 11 mahals in all [20]

EARLY BRITISH PERIOD.

With the British victory at Buxar in 1764 Tirhut passed with the rest of Bihar under British rule. From then on the history of the district was confined to the establishment of order and settled government, the growth of cultivation and commerce, and the general advance of civilization. During the early days of British administration a great part of the territory was in an acute state of lawlessness. The trade routes were infested by robbers, who preyed on the surrounding tenantry; crimes went unpunished, and even high officials were molested. The correspondence in the first twenty years of British rule presents an extremely unhappy picture of the internal state of the country, the trade-routes blocked by gangs of free-booting zamindars, large stretches of land lying waste owing to their depredations, the revenue officers in league with and sharing the booty of these outlaws, blackmail extorted from the servants of the local officers and the attempts to apprehend arch-criminals set at naught. To the south it was reported that the zamindars had assumed authority in defiance of law and order and that the situation of their estates among the jungles and on the banks of the Baghmati enabled them to keep forces which no person in those parts could repel and that they managed to maintain them by means of depredations on both sides of the river. In the north matters were no better. The zamindars on the borders of Nepal,

secure in their jungle fastnesses, mocked at the authorities. About them the Judge wrote in 1781 that they were all to a man tyrants, and that many of them had been in a state of warfare with Government. Many of the peasants unable to bear the constant oppression of these petty tyrants abandoned their houses and lands and fled to Nepal, so that "in every village there were several empty houses, and many villages were quite waste."

The soil of Tirhut was indeed very fertile and rivers were abundant. Yet the district suffered from some serious handicaps during the early period of British administration. In 1790 the Collector wrote: "I cannot forbear, now that I am writing of Tirhoot, to remark that whilst many indulge their fancy in expatiating on the natural advantages of this district, the richness of its soil and its multifarious streams, not a single individual stops to reflect that along their solitary banks scarce a hamlet is to be seen, and for miles and miles not a human foot-step to be traced—*golas*, *gaunges*, *bazars*, *beoparies*, manufacturers, inland traders and the foreign purchasers (without which rivers flow to no purpose and the earth's productive to no end) exist only in imagination. From one town to another even the high roads (on which the traveller and the merchants used formerly to pursue their journey in safety and in ease) are in some parts choked up with weeds and grass and in others are excavated by the periodical rains."[21] The abundance of rivers, while it certainly favoured agriculture, was often a cause of sorrow to the inhabitants of Tirhut. The district had frequently, as now, to experience floods, which sometimes were devastating in their effects. In 1795 the Collector reported that almost every part of it had been "inundated in a manner never known before."[22]

In the correspondence of the closing years of the eighteenth century and the early years of the nineteenth, we frequently come across references to indigo manufacture in Tirhut. The district owed the introduction of proper manufacture of indigo to its first official collector, Francois Grand, who at his own initiative, established three factories between 1782 and 1785. It may be mentioned that prior to Francois Grand being designated as the Collector near about 1781 there was a European Officer by the designation of Supervisor for Tirhut appointed in 1769. This post was converted to the post of a Collector with Grand as the first incumbent.

By the end of the century the indigo industry was well-established with considerable capital invested in it by European planters. According to a statement of 1802, there were then in Tirhut 13 planters, of whom 1 was Indian, 4 Englishmen, 1 Scotch, 4 Irishmen, 1 German and 2 Italians.[23] There were 16 indigo factories at the time, but the number rose to 25 by 1810. Dwelling on the benefits of indigo manufacture the Collector wrote in that year that not less than thirty to fifty thousand persons received their principal support from indigo factories in the district. According to his estimate, "a sum possibly not less than 6 or 7 lacs of rupees is annually circulated in Zillah Tirhoot by a few enterprising European indigo planters, and that too, to people who

are most in want of such constant and certain aid, cultivators, day labourers *and their families.* "[24]

A study of the old correspondence, preserved in the Revenue Record Room of Muzaffarpur gives a good cross section of the main trends of the administration during that period. The background was that a body of traders known as the United Company of Merchants of England trading in the East Indies with headquarters at the Presidency of Fort William had come into the administration of the country through the channel of trade. But the main idea behind the administration was to collect the revenue and to encourage trade for and on behalf of the Company. There was no hesitation to put the defaulter of rent to prison or to torture him so that his people would come forward and make up the arrears.

The Governor-General and the members of his Council and under them the Board of Revenue, consisting of a President and a few members controlled the Collectors who were in charge of the actual administration of the districts. The old correspondence shows an overcentralised administration with the Collector at the district headquarters who knew that he was not trusted and in many cases wanted to make as much as he could for himself without, however, seriously jeopardizing the interests of the Company. Frequent warnings used to be issued, and the Collectors were severely reprimanded or punished for their lapses. Francois Grand, the first Collector designated as such was once fined one month's pay for not sending the treasury account to the Accountant-General in time. The order of this punishment was sent on 22nd May 1782. Grand satisfactorily explained his position, and Sir John Shore in a letter on 22nd August 1782 communicated that the fine was remitted. In another letter, dated the 31st July, 1783, the Board communicated to Grand a warning against the Company's servants forcibly occupying grounds which were not their property and erecting buildings on them and then applying for sanction. From the old records it is found that the Company's servants, taking advantage of their position, were having their own private trade. Francois Grand, was running several indigo concerns of his own, which eventually led to his dismissal from the Company's service. He, however, should be remembered for being the first man to introduce the western method for manufacturing indigo dye.

Another Collector, Bathurst, also came to grief because of his private dealings. Lord Cornwallis, however, prescribed a form of oath for the Company's covenanted servants; and a part of the oath ran as follows :—

> " I will not demand, take or employ directly or indirectly by myself or by any other person for my use or on my behalf or from any Raja, Zamindar, Talukdar, Polygar, Rector. Ryat, or other person paying or liable to pay any tribute, rent or tax for the use of the said United Company in sum of money, or other valuable thing by way of gift and

presents or otherwise for and on behalf of or besides and accept actual tribute, rent or tax authorised to be taken by and for the use of the said United Company and that I will justly and truly account and answer to the said United Company. "

The Governor-General in Council was taking a serious view of the lapses on the part of the Company's servants which often occurred. Sweedland, the Collector of Tirhut was in 1796 detected by the Military Auditor-General as having wasted a lot of Government money over the payment of full salaries to persons in the Company's employment who had been invalidated. There was an Invalid Establishment at Bhagalpur; and Collector Sweedland who had paid full pay to some persons of Sarkar Tirhut sent to the Invalid Establishment at Bhagalpur, had to make good the loss personally. Another charge against Sweedland was that these invalids had been promised lands in Tirhut, but they had never been put in possession of these.

Another instance of the Revenue Board's anxiety to check corruption is seen in a letter dated the 11th October, 1799, to Sweedland. This letter shows that the Board had found the charge of misappropriation against the late Collector of Burdwan substantiated. Evidently, there was misappropriation of an amount of the Establishment, and a warning was circularised to all Collectors including Sweedland that they were not to make " any alterations in the distribution of their Establishments under any pretext whatsoever, and that any actual misappropriation (of the amount) which can be viewed in no other light as embezzlement of their public money will be considered not only as a ground for the immediate dismissal from his office, but as subjecting them to that penalty to which they may come liable in consequence of public trust. "

TRADE WITH NEPAL.

During those early days of the Company's administration, Tirhut had a brisk trade with Nepal. This trade was actively encouraged by the Company's Government. In a letter dated the 2nd February, 1792, the Collector of Tirhut gave a list of articles exported to and imported from Nepal. The letter is as follows :--

" Enclosed you will receive the current exports and imports required by your letter of the 17th last. Though the articles are numerous the trade is very condigned and is likely to continue so, unless the Nepal Government can be prevailed upon to afford the protection to the trader and to reduce and fix the Duties which are at present arbitrary and exorbitant. "

The exports to Nepal were salt, white woollen cloth, muslin, Malda cloth, English red cloth, Hindustani shoes, muskets, nutmegs, cloves, pepper, *betel-nut*, cocoanut, all sorts of pulses and opium.

The imports from Nepal were gold dust, crude borax, ivory, wax, cow's tails, lead, iron, copper, Cochin cloth, chints, cinnamon, honey, *silajeet* and tin.

BONA FIDE BUSINESS IN OPIUM AND INDIGO.

A certain amount of encouragement was given by the Government for the manufacture of indigo. Since 1761 opium manufacture and trade had been a Government monopoly. Regular advances used to be given to the recognised opium ryats under the control of the Government. The Collectors were warned to keep an eye on contraband business in opium.

STATISTICS.

The need for statistics for running the administration appears to have been early realised. The proposals of the Collectors for taxation used to be accompanied with some sort of statistics.

A letter from Tirhut Magistracy on the 17th October, 1791 to the Secretary to the Board of Revenue is as follows :—

> " I have the pleasure of transmitting you an abstract of an estimate of the population of the *Lakhrage* land in this Collectorship of Tirhut................ men 2,20,351 women 1,12,250...............children 1,75,400 total 6,08,901. "

FAMINE DUE TO RAINS.

Scarcity or excess of rains leading to famine or conditions preceding a famine were not unknown in 1791. The extracts from the following letter written from the Tirhut Magistracy on the 27th October, 1791 to William Cowper, President of the Board of Revenue will show :—

> " In the month of Jaite 1198 when the cultivation of the current fusli year commenced, such quantity of rain fell, that numberless land which had been sown and the crop already above grounds were inundated and the promised harvest destroyed. Immediately on the waters drying up lands were sown afresh, and from the month of Assar to the middle of Bhadon there was no scarcity of seasonable showers; but from that period to the end of Assin which is a season for rice crop and the fusli harvest there was not a single shower except on a very few partial spot.............. one month of moderate expectancy still remains for the cultivation of Rabbi and should there be a rain much Rabbi cultivation may be still carried on enough to diminish the general despondency and avert many of the Malguzars of that ruin that seems inevitable. "

NEPALESE INCURSIONS.

The difficulties of administration in Trihut were further increased by external trouble owing to the incursions of the Gurkhas. Attempts to induce them to aid British officers in the suppression of frontier dacoities were fruitless; and all remonstrances against their aggressions were disregarded. The Collector reported that between 1787 and 1813

upwards of 200 villages had been seized by the Gurkhas upon one or other unjustifiable pretext. In 1815 he was again obliged to report that the zamindars complained that in consequence of the incursions of the Nepalese, who had come down and burnt their villages and plundered their property, their ryots had in many instances failed to pay their rent. When the Nepal War at last broke out, a large body of troops had to be posted at Majorganj near Mahlai; and a few miles to the north across the frontier, one of the few successful British actions in this part of the country was fought. Here close on the frontier, a Gurkha outpost had been established under Parasram Thapa; and Major Bradshaw, who was in command of the English forces, determined to attack it, preparatory to occupying the whole Tarai. Early in the morning of the 25th November, 1814, he surprised and carried the post, killing the Gurkha commander and capturing a Gurkha envoy. The Tarai was immediately evacuated by the Gurkhas and occupied by the British, Captain Blackney being posted at Samarpur to the north of the district on the extreme right of the line, where he was left with a small force without any support. Here he was taken completely by surprise at day-break on the 1st January, 1815; the camp was rushed, the tents fired, the sepoys broke and ran in the utmost confusion, and Captain Blackney himself was killed. Peace was, however, established with Nepal by the Treaty of Sigauli in 1816. In the records of the period there are references to money being sent from the Muzaffarpur treasury for the expenses of troops engaged in the Nepal war.[25]

EXTENSION OF PERMANENT SETTLEMENT.

During the forty years following the Nepal war, nothing particularly interesting happened in the history of the district. The bulk of the correspondence of the period deals with the land revenue administration and the measures taken by the Company's Government to extend the benefits of the Permanent Settlement to the district, an account of which will be given in a separate chapter.[26] The records show that there were, in Tirhut, numerous revenue-free jagirs and other classes of lands, most of which dated from Mughal times. During the thirty years from 1819, the Company's revenue officers spared no pains to resume revenue-free tenures on the ground of lapse on the death of the holders, or on suspicion that many of the grants were not genuine, thereby causing great distress to numbers of people. Great difficulties had to be experienced by the revenue officers in prevailing upon the zamindars to accept the Permanent Settlement. and instances of estates being held under *Khas* management were particularly numerous. The zamindars in general were rather litigious in character and frequently declined settlements with the Government. It took decades before the bulk of the estates in the district could be properly and permanently settled.

MOVEMENT OF 1857-58.

The movement of 1857-58 had its repercussions in Muzaffarpur. Even before the outbreak of 1857, there was considerable dissatisfaction

with the existing state of affairs, as is shown by the rising of the prisoners in Muzaffarpur Jail during 1855-56, when, in accordance with a general circular, an attempt was made to deprive the prisoners of their *lotas*[27] and to substitute earthenware vessels in their place.[28] Owing to the fact that the brass vessel might be used for purposes other than holding of water, e.g., in braining a magistrate or flattening the face of a gaoler, necessary instructions were issued for taking it away.[29] In Muzaffarpur, there was a great outburst of popular indignation, and it was described by the Magistrate as " a furious and altogether unexpected attack on the part of the people of the town and district in support and sympathy with the prisoners. "[30] It was mentioned in his report that the rioters " included almost all the inhabitants of the town, as well as a vast number of ryots, who declared that they would not go away until the lotas were restored."[31] So great was the danger " of prisoners escaping, of their plundering the Treasury and pillaging the town, before the troops which had been sent for could be brought up, that the civil authorities deemed it expedient to pacify the insurgents, by restoring the lotas to the people in the gaols. "[32]

The political upheaval of 1857 caused considerable uneasiness among the European planters and residents in Tirhut, and " there was a loud outcry for protection among the European community throughout the district, who believed that Najibs were not to be trusted and that the Mohomedans at best would rise. " A large number of indigo planters from the interior rushed to Muzaffarpur for safety, as the idea was gaining prominence " that a rising of troops at Dinapore might be expected and that such rising would be accompanied by rising in this and other districts. " On the 23rd June, Warris Ali, a police jamadar of Tirhut, who claimed connection with the Delhi Royal family, was arrested. He was found with a bundle of papers and letters which implicated one Ali Karim of Patna district. The jamadar was sent to Major Holmes for being hanged, but the latter sent him to Dinapore to take his trial in the Commissioner's court; and he was hanged on the 6th July. By the first week of July steps were taken by the Company's Government to " seize mutineers and deserters who were to be found in Tirhut. " Orders were issued for effectively guarding the *ghats* on the Gandak and the Ganga. The landholders were instructed to give information concerning the sepoys and to detain them in their estates, and the European planters were to help them in their work. At the same time promise of rewards was made for the arrest of ' deserters ', ' mutineers ' and ' seditious persons '.[33]

Meanwhile the news of the outbreak in the army at Dinapore and Sagauli and the revolt of Kuar Singh of Jagdishpur caused great excitement and called for protection of the immediate neighbourhood. In September and the following months a large number of persons were committed to the sessions courts on various charges, such as dacoity, plunder, use of seditious expressions, violence, etc. Punishments of a very severe type were inflicted in these cases.[34] The European community with the treasure were earlier withdrawn to Patna by

William Tayler, Commissioner of Patna Division having jurisdiction over the Tirhut area.

In the second week of September there was an apprehension of an attack from Gorakhpur side. Accordingly a house was fortified at Muzaffarpur to which Europeans could resort " in case of an unexpected attack. " Stringent measures were taken by Government for the apprehension of the rebels. Meanwhile many of the rebels had moved towards the Nepal Terrai, and it was feared that they might descend on Tirhut. On the 25th December a parwana was sent to the Commander of Yeomanry Cavalry, " addressed by the Maharaja Jung Bahadur (of Nepal) to all his soobahs and subordinates in the Terrai directing them to give every facility and assistance ", to the troops, which " may cross into the Nepal territory in pursuit of the mutineers. " In January, 1858, a joint attempt was made by Richardson, George Yule and Ratan Man Singh, the Nepalese general, to capture the rebels near Chatra in the Terrai; but they were unsuccessful. In April 1858, there was again a fear among the Englishmen that bands of rebels were coming towards Tirhut from Azamgarh side. The Government authorities betrayed serious fear and nervousness on the occasion; and all possible precautionary measures were taken to guard against the danger. The danger from the Gandak side was, however, averted by July, 1858, but in August intelligence was received that a body of sepoys " 600 or 1,000 were coming down the stream with the intention of landing in Chapra. " Accordingly the Muzaffarpur Collectorate was again put in a state of defence. The defensive preparations were, however, never called into use, and Muzaffarpur remained on the whole undisturbed. No doubt the possibility of rebels entering was feared as late as April, 1859. But the Magistrate finally wrote to the Commissioner of Circuit, Patna, on 19th April for his sanction to re-open the Gandak for traffic.[35]

INDIGO MANUFACTURE.

The subsequent history of Muzaffarpur from 1858 to 1875 is interesting from the point of view of the development of the European indigo industry in the district. Mindon Wilson in his *History of Behar*, published in 1881, has mentioned the number of European indigo concerns in the district, together with a short history of their origin. There were then about two dozen indigo factories, some of which had formerly been sugar factories, but had later on taken to indigo. The more important of these factories were Daudpur, Motipur, Shahpur Patori, Belsand, Sahibganj, Kanti, Dalsing Sarai, Dholi and Pipra. Most of these had been established at the end of the eighteenth century or the beginning of the nineteenth. At Motipur the Dutch had originally established a sugar factory as early as 1789. But later on, in 1816, it became an indigo concern under Noel and Co. The Mokurrari patta of the Daudpur factory is dated 1798. The equalization of duties on East India and West India sugar by the British Parliament in 1836 had for a time given an impetus to the establishment and extension of European sugar plantations in Tirhut.[36] Tirhut soil was

well-suited for sugarcane cultivation. But sugar required much greater initial outlay than indigo. Hence its manufacture was not found so profitable as that of indigo. Accordingly, many of the planters converted their sugar factories to indigo concerns. Muzaffarpur, however, continued to be the centre of the planters' activities in North Bihar. Later on it was chosen as the headquarters station of the Bihar Planters' Association. And the European planters exercised tremendous power and influence in this part of the country down to the early years of the present century. The Bihar Light Horse, an ancillary volunteer corps consisting of the planters and Anglo-Indians, was a great factor in North Bihar.[36A]

Tirhut was at first linked up to Bhagalpur Division. After the Santhal revolt the district of Santhal Parganas was carved out and it was felt that the Commissioner of Bhagalpur should be given lighter work and also that Tirhut needed closer control. For all this by Gazette Notification, dated the 15th October 1856, Tirhut was transferred to the Commissionership of Patna. At that time Tirhut consisted of the present Muzaffarpur and Darbhanga districts. The decision of the transfer of Tirhut from Bhagalpur Commissionership to Patna Commissionership was communicated in letter no. 731, dated the 15th October, 1856, by W. Grey, to the Officiating Secretary, Board of Revenue. The Collector of Tirhut used to address the Commissioner of Bhagalpur as his superior officer till this transfer in 1856. The records in the archives of West Bengal Government bear this out.

Muzaffarpur was separated from Darbhanga and part of the Begusarai subdivision with which it had been linked up, and constituted a separate district in 1875 under the Commissionership of Patna. Shortly thereafter, the Government's attention was drawn to the relations between the European indigo planters and the ryots in Tirhut. As early as 1867-68 there had been a strong demonstration against indigo in North Bihar, accompanied in some instances by acts of violence.[37] The Commissioner of Patna reported that the system of indigo cultivation then prevailing involved an amount of lawlessness and oppression, principally in the shape of exacted agreements to cultivate, and of seizure of plough and cattle, which could not be tolerated. It was with a view to initiate reform in the system of indigo cultivation that the Bihar Indigo Planters' Association was formally constituted in 1877. There is no doubt that the European planters helped a great deal in advancing the development and prosperity of Muzaffarpur and adjoining districts. But frictions between the planters and the ryots continued more or less down to the end of the nineteenth century and even afterwards.

ADMINISTRATION REPORT OF 1876-77.

Turning again to the old correspondence in the Record Room, we find that a letter dated the 29th June, 1877, from C. F. Worsley, Magistrate of Muzaffarpur, to the Commissioner of Patna Division, furnishes the Commissioner with the General Administration Report of

Muzaffarpur district for the year 1876-77. Muzaffarpur had three sub-divisions, namely, Muzaffarpur, Hajipur and Sitamarhi. The district, the report mentions, " is situated between the parallels of 25°30′ and 26°52½′ north latitude and the meridians of 84°54½′ and 85°57½′ east longitude. Its greatest length from north to south is 96 miles. It contains a superficial area of 2,969 square miles, with a population of 2,188,382 souls. The population comprises 1,916,422 Hindoos, 271,445 Mussalmans, 124 Europeans and East Indians and 391 persons of other classes. "

" The principal rivers in the district were Bagmuttee, Boorgunduck and Bya. The principal roads were Hajipur *via* Muzaffarpur and Sitamarhi to Sonbursa on the frontier, and one continuous line of 92 miles in length. Next in importance come the roads which connect Muzaffarpur with Durbhanga and Motihari and Muzaffarpur with Sarun *via* Rewaghat.*

" In respect of soil the district could be divided into three tracts; (1) the southern tract embracing Hajeepore subdivision and so much of Muzaffarpur subdivision as lies on the right bank of the Boorgunduck river. In this tract the land is for the most part high and slightly undulating, and the soil, which consists of rich mould and sand, produces most of the opium, indigo and tobacco grown in the district. Of the cultivated area two-fifths is rice land and three-fifths is under rubee, bhadoi, and non-edible crops; (2) the central tract, lying between the Boorgunduck and Bagmuttee rivers, where the land is low and subject to inundation. In this tract the soil consists of alluvial matter mixed with rich mould; of the cultivated area three-fifths is rice land and two-fifths is under mixed crops; (3) the northern tract between the Bagmuttee river and the frontier, where the country is low and in many places marshy. In this tract the soil consists of sand and clay with an admixture of iron. Of the cultivated area three-fifths is rice land and two-fifths is under mixed crops. "

On the average the total rainfall during the year was 47.35 inches. The highest rainfall was in August, recorded 13.44 inches, while in September it was 12.59 inches.

Regarding the material condition of the people, it was observed that for the most part the condition was poor, partly by reason of over-population and consequent low wages, and partly through the prevalence of the thikadari system and the insufficient protection which the rent-law afforded to the ryots. The supply of labour was much greater than the demand and the natural consequences of this state of things could only be mitigated by emigration on a large scale, or by temporary emigrations to thinly peopled districts at times of harvest.

The wages of field labourers remained stationary in respect of the increased facilities of travelling afforded by the Tirhut State Railway.

*The spellings of the names have been retained.

It was between 1 anna and 1½ anna per diem to able-bodied labourers. Emigration continued to be abnormal, and immigration was quite unknown.

The chief manufactures were indigo, saltpetre, opium and tobacco. The extent of indigo cultivation in this district was 74,719 bighas of which 43,202 bighas were cultivated as zerat, 26,901 under the asamiwar, and 4,616 under the khusgi systems. Besides indigo, the manufacture of saltpetre was important in the district, and it had increased during the last two years. Saltpetre business was very profitable to the refiners, but not so to the Nooniahs or manufactures of the crude article. Crop cultivation was very popular. Some tobacco was grown in each of three subdivisions.

There was a movement known as Moonshee Pearee Lall's Movement for reducing marriage expenditure particularly amongst the Kayasths.

The report dealt on the good effects of the division of Tirhut in January, 1875, which made possible increased supervision and intimate knowledge on the part of the district officers, and materially strengthened the general administration.

CRIMES AND JUSTICE.

There was a great expansion of the police outpost system in controlling crimes. The prevailing crimes in the district were thefts and burglaries. There was a continued reduction of burglaries. The bad characters of the district were kept under strong control. Civil justice was administered by the Civil Judges. The Judges were highly respected for their abilities and were assisted by pleaders.

The relations between the landlords and tenants were, by no means, cordial especially so far as indigo cultivation was concerned. Indigo was grown under either zerat or asami-war khusgi. Under the zerat system the planter used to take a terminable lease of proprietary rights and employ the powers hired from the zamindar for the purpose of confiscating ryots' tenures and converting them into zerat lands. Under the asami-war system, which was an offshoot of the zerat system, the ryots of an estate which had been leased to a factory, in whole or part, were required to execute agreements for the cultivation of indigo throughout three-twentieths of their lands in terms of lease. The khusgi system was the voluntary cultivation of indigo by ryots in villages over which the planter did not exercise proprietary authority.

The report mentions that the indigo cultivators had quiet behaviour. Stringent were the terms of the contract under which a ryot was bound by one of the best factories of the district to cultivate indigo.

Meanwhile, the introduction of the German synthetic dye into the market at the end of the century led to an unusual drop in indigo cultivation. However, the Indigo Planters' Association was reconstituted in 1905 and was christened as the Bihar Planters' Association. The outbreak of the First World War in 1914 led to a revival of the demand

for Indian indigo; and some of the factories in Muzaffarpur and Champaran, which had abandoned indigo cultivation, started it afresh. There was soon a great agitation against indigo cultivation on the part of the Champaran ryots which eventually brought Mahatma Gandhi to the field.* His visit and stay in Champaran in 1917 and his unofficial enquiry into the relations between the planters and the ryots, had their due repercussions in Muzaffarpur. Mahatma Gandhi also paid a short visit to Muzaffarpur. His demand at last compelled Government to appoint a Commission to enquire into the whole question of indigo cultivation in Champaran. In accordance with the report of the Commission, an Agrarian Act was passed which abolished the Tinkathia system,[38] then prevailing in the indigo factories.

Bomb Case of 1908.

Perhaps the most notable event of Muzaffarpur at the beginning of the present century was the Bomb case of 1908. Khudiram Bose and Prafulla Chandra Chaki, two Bengali young boys came over to Muzaffarpur with the object of murdering Mr. Kingsford, the District Judge, who, as Chief Presidency Magistrate of Calcutta, had ordered a number of young Bengalis to be flogged for singing the " Bande Mataram ", a national song in a novel of Bankim Chandra Chatterji. Those were the days when the revolutionary movement was at its full fervour in Bengal, and the singing of " Bande Mataram " was considered seditious in the eyes of the British authorities. Khudiram and Prafulla stayed in a local hotel, and one day threw bombs on a carriage near the European club. The carriage, which was supposed to be Mr. Kingsford's had occupants other than Mr. Kingsford with the result that Mrs. and Miss Kennedy, the wife and daughter of a local counsel, were killed. The incident sent a thrill of consternation all over the province. Prafulla was caught by a police officer at Mokamah Ghat and shot himself dead. Khudiram, too, was arrested near Dholi Railway Station, tried and hanged. The episode created a sensation all over Bengal and Bihar. The execution of the nineteen-year old Khudiram, who confessed his guilt in the dock, *Gita* in hand, became almost a theme, which was sung from door to door. Muzaffarpur town has preserved Khudiram's memory by a tablet and a statue near about the place where the bomb was thrown.

Political Movements.

The Tirhut division had been created in 1907 as Patna division was considered to be too unwieldy. Prior to this as mentioned before parts of Tirhut division were administered from Bhagalpur in the 19th century. But administrative details went on multiplying and in 1907 a separate Commissionership for Tirhut comprising Muzaffarpur, Darbhanga, Champaran and Saran districts were created.

---

*There was an earlier movement by the cultivators against indigo cultivation in Bettiah subdivision of Champaran district in 1907-08. Please see *Gandhiji's First Struggle in India* by P. C. Roy Chaudhury.

Muzaffarpur continued to be centre of revolutionary activity after 1908. Some of the local young men, mostly Bengalis, were actively associated with it and carried on secret correspondence with the revolutionary party of Bengal. The police were constantly after them. When, however, the Non-co-operation Movement was launched in 1920-21, they mostly threw in their lot with the leaders and supporters of this movement. During the Non-co-operation Movement, and later on during the Civil Disobedience Movement of 1930-31, the district responded widely to the call of Mahatma Gandhi. Indeed it soon became the most prominent area of Congress activities in North Bihar. During the August Movement in 1942, the district was in full fury. In the town the movement was sponsored mostly by students, but in rural areas the masses spontaneously rose. For days together communications were dislocated, railway wagons looted and station buildings damaged by fire. At Sitamarhi, the infuriated mob killed a magistrate, and at Hajipur and several other places the situation went out of control. At last the movement was stifled with the aid of military forces. Many of the participants were sent to jail after trial, and heavy punitive fines were imposed on rural areas. But the people had shaken off the fear of the gun and had realised the tremendous power they could wield if only they united. In the story of the freedom movement in Bihar, the contribution of this district is indeed very great. The Congress is now the largest political party in this district.

EARTHQUAKE, 1934.

The greatest natural calamity which befell Muzaffarpur during the first half of the present century was the earthquake of 1934. While some of the other districts of Bihar, such as Monghyr, Champaran, Patna and Darbhanga, were badly affected by it, perhaps the heaviest casualties took place in this district. The earthquake was, however, in a sense a blessing in disguise for Muzaffarpur town, because it made a clean sweep of unhygienic congestion and helped the building up of a cleaner and healthier town. Details of the earthquake will be found in a different chapter.

The two decades or so following the great earthquake of 1934 and particularly the Post-Independence period (from 1947 onwards) have witnessed considerable improvement and progress in the district in several respects. Education has made rapid strides. Apart from the great progress of primary and secondary education in the district, Muzaffarpur town has become practically the nucleus of a future university, with two Arts colleges (one with Post-graduate teaching), a Girls' college, a Law college and an Engineering college. Technical and industrial education has received considerable attention. At the same time there has been a revival of antiquarian studies and an archaeological museum has been established at Basarh (old Vaisali), communications have improved though much remains to be done in this field. The importance of Muzaffarpur has increased of late on account

of the fact that it has become the regional headquarters of N. E. Railways. It will increase further after the Kosi and Gandak projects and the Mokamah Bridge are completed.

Archaeological Remains.

The earliest archaeological remains so far recovered from the district is a pillar of Asoka (C. 269 to 236 B. C.) inside a private house at Kolhua, a village 24 miles south-west of Muzaffarpur and two miles to the north-west of a more well known village, Banya Basarh.

Asoka Pillar at Kolhua.

The pillar is situated on the southern part of a large mound 6 to 8 feet high above the neighbouring fields. The pillar consists of a monolith of highly polished sandstone surmounted by a capital on which is a life-size figure of a single lion facing the north. The shaft is 21 feet 9 inches above the present ground level; the remaining portion has gone underground as a result of the accumulation of debris round it. The diameter of the tapering shaft was noted by Cunningham as 38.7 inches at the top and 49.8 inches at the water level where he had dug around the pillar to a depth of a further 14 feet and was still unable to reach its base The capital of the pillar is usual bell shaped, 2 feet 10 inches in height, on which stands a plain abacus to serve as the pedestal of a lion, 4 feet 6 inches in height. Below the conventional lotus decorating the bell are a bead and reel design and a fine cable ornament. Above it a heavy cable necking divides the bell from the abacus. There are two steps in the abacus itself; the lower one is smaller than the upper.

The lion of Basarh-Baskhira pillar (the name Baskhira, an adjoining village of Kolhua was used by Mr. Stephenson who first attracted the notice of the scholarly world to the Mauryan column in 1835, and since then the name has assumed a certain degree of popularity) is seated on its hind legs with his mouth open as if snarling and its tongue slightly protruding. Though perfectly preserved, artistically the lion is comparatively somewhat crude in execution.

The Kolhua pillar does not bear any inscription of Asoka and it is not possible to assign it to any particular year of Asoka's reign. But from the form of the lion cap not yet fully developed, the heaviness of the shaft and the position of the abacus which has yet no integral relation with the bell capital it can be inferred that it was one of the earliest of Asokan columns.

Stupa-Mound at Kolhua.

About 60 feet to the north of the Kolhua pillar, there lies an ancient Stupa-mound about 15 feet high. It has a diameter of about 65 feet at the bottom with an old tank called Ramkund nearby. Attempts have been made on the basis of Hiuen Tsang's evidence that here was a stupa built by Asoka and the old tank is of Buddha's time. " To the north-west (of Vaisali), " says Hiuen Tsang, " there was a stupa built

by Asoka, and a stone pillar, 50 or 60 feet in height, crowned by a lion. To the south of the pillar there was a tank, which had been dug for the use of Buddha, when he dwelt in this place. At a short distance to the west of the tank there was a second stupa, on the spot where the monkeys had offered honey to Buddha. At the north-west corner of the tank, there was a statute of a monkey." (Walters on Hiuen Tsang, II, pp. 65-66.) While the suggestion that the ruined stupa is of Asokan date cannot be totally rejected, there is no positive evidence that supports the claim. As for the position of the monkey tank, it is interesting to note that Fa-Hien who mentions the Great Wood and its two storey monastery in his list of the sights of Vaisali, says nothing about the monkey tank at its side.

The only other sculptural object of archaeological interest recovered from the district of Muzaffarpur which probably bears a Mauryan date is the fragment of a capital of Chunar sand-stone with Mauryan polish which was found at the village of Salempur. The piece consists of four semi-bulls seated back to back on a plain square abacus, the animals themselves being superimposed by a square block decorated with honey-suckle ornaments. (The antiquity is now housed in the Patna Museum.)

BASARH MOUND.

The present village of Basarh, situated in 25°59′ North and 85°8′ East and at a distance of 20 miles north-west from Hajipur, has been identified, on the basis of literary evidence, as the ancient city of Vaisali, the capital of the oligarchical Lichchavis of North Bihar. Vaisali is intimately connected with the life and achievements of the Buddha and Mahavira. The imposing brick covered mound of Basarh (locally known as Raja Vaisal Ki Garh), somewhat oblong in shape. measures 1,700 feet long from north to south and 800 feet from east to west. With round towers at the four corners, the mound, once probably a fort, is surrounded by a ditch, about 125 feet broad. The interior of the mound has a general elevation of 6 to 8 feet above the surrounding country. The only building within the area of the mound is a modern brick temple.

Explorations started since the days of Cunningham followed by excavations carried on by the Department of Archaeology, Government of India, in the years 1903-4 and 1913-14, however, have not been able to unearth from the site any relic of the age of the Buddha and Mahavira. Though structural remains excavated, belonging to two or three periods are poor and fragmentary, the mound is rich in antiquities. The earliest phase is indicated by punch-marked and cast copper coins followed by a stone matrix in which occurs the name of an individual "Srijatarshasa", in Mauryan Brahmi character. Another seal which has as its device a Kalasa with one flower and two tiny crescents to left and right contains a three line legend written in Brahmi character of the Mauryan period and runs as "Vesali Anusamyanaka Takare". But the most important finds from Vaisali are a large

number of seals of the Gupta period (about the end of the 4th century A. D.). They were originally attached to documents and some of them belonged to officials of Gupta kings and some to private persons, mostly bankers and traders, many of whom were members of mercantile guilds. Two of the seals contain the name "Tirabhukti", the ancient appellation of Tirhut. Besides, the Basarh mound has yielded a large number of terracotta figures, decorated stone tablets, pottery and metal pieces. The site was occupied even in the Muslim period as is evidenced from the find of Alauddin Khalji's silver coin and copper coin of Ibrahim Shah Sultan. Most of the finds have been kept in Patna Museum and some are in a small Museum at Vaisali itself.

A Second Mound.

About 300 yards south-west of the main mound, there is another mound of solid bricks, 23 feet 8 inches in height above the fields. The top has been levelled to receive comparatively later Muslim tombs, the largest and most important of which is known as Miranji Ki Dargah but really contains the relics of a well known saint of this country named Shaikh Muhammad Qazin who died in 1495 A. D. There is no doubt that this mound is a much earlier one, but about even its approximate age nothing definite can be said at present. It is not unlikely to be of the same age as the bigger mound by its side.

With the disappearance of the rich mercantile community of Tirabhukti, this area ceased to be a political unit of any decisive importance. The Pala Kings were more interested in the central and southern regions of Bihar. The archaeological remains of the post-Gupta period are scanty and poor. A few Buddhist and Brahminical images at Deokali, Jauri-dih and Basarh (found in a temple known as Bavan Pokhar Ka Mandir) belonging to the 9th and 10th centuries A. D. and a ruined Buddhist temple at Hajipur, probably of the same chronological horizon are all that the district has inherited from the Palas in the form of archaeological remains.

The Hajipur subdivision of the district abounds in Muslim remains, mostly of a comparatively modern date. The town of Hajipur was founded by Sham-suddin Ilyas Shah Haji, an independent King of Bengal (1345—58 A. D.). His tomb is situated close to the Gandak bridge, on a raised and enclosed platform. A notable monument of the town of a somewhat early date is the Jama Masjid built by Mokhsus Khan, a brother of Said Khan Chaghta, who was twice the Governor of Bihar in the time of Akbar. This mosque as the Hindi chronogram denotes was erected in 995 A. H., i.e., 1587 A. D. The front verandah of the mosque measures 89′ 6″ by 26′. The wall of the prayer chamber is 7′ 3″ thick The mosque is an imposing building with three domes. It has a big prayer hall divided into three compartments supported by vaulted arches and lateral walls.

REFERENCES.

1. Homage to Vaisali (1948), p. 92.
2. *Ibid.* p. 29.
3. *Ibid.* p. 30.
4. R. K. Mookerji, Vaisali in Indian History and Culture (Homage to Vaisali, p. 5).
5. A. S. Altekar, The Const. Hist. of Vaisali (Homage to Vaisali p. 70).
6. H. Jacobi, Sacred Books of the East, Vol. 22, pp. X-XIII.
7. *Ibid.*
8. H. C. Roy Chaudhury, Political History of India.
9. Major General Cunningham writes that the alms bowl must have been carried off either by Kanishka or by Huvishka early in the second century A. D. (Homage to Vaisali, p. 146).
10. This would be about 20 miles—Walters on Hiuen Tsang, Vol. II, p. 63.
11. J. R. A. S., 1905, p. 566.
12. R. D. Banerji, Bangalar Itihasa, Vol. I, pp. 299-300.
13. S. N. Singh, History of Tirhut, pp. 59—69.
14. *Ibid.* pp. 69—84.
15. *Ibid.* p. 81.
16. *Ibid.* pp. 87-88.
17. *Ibid.* p. 88.
18. *Ibid.*
19. I. A. S. B., Vol. XI, pp. 430-31.
20. Eng. translation of Aurangzeb's Farman appended to letter of R. Graham to Rev. Board, 13 June, 1800 (Muzaffarpur Collectorate Records).
21. H. R. Ghosal, Tirhut at the end of the eighteenth and the beginning of the nineteenth century (J. B. R. S., Vol. XXXIX, part 4).
22. *Ibid.*
23. *Ibid.*
24. *Ibid.* Also *see* " The Infancy of Sarkar Tirhut " by P. C. Roy Chaudhury in J. B. R. S.
25. Muzaffarpur Old Records. (Under publication.)
26. *See* Chapter on Land Revenue Administration.
27. Metal drinking vessels.

28. J. B. R. S., March, 1954, p. 55.
29. *Ibid.*
30. *Ibid.*
31. *Ibid.* pp. 55-56.
32. *Ibid.* p. 56.
33. *Ibid* P. 57.
34. *Ibid.* pp. 60-61.
35. *See* in this connection J. B. R. S., March—June, 1953, pp. 86—105.
36. First Report from Select Committee on Sugar and Coffee Planting (1848), pp. 12—84; *see* also H. R. Ghosal, Economic Transition in the Beng. Presidency, pp. 77-78.

36A. Gandhiji's First Struggle in India by P. C. Roy Chaudhury (Navajivan Trust, Ahmedabad).

37. S. N. Singh, History of Tirhut, pp. 241-42.
38. Gandhiji's First Struggle in India by P. C. Roy Chaudhury (Navajivan Trust, Ahmedabad).

BIBLIOGRAPHY FOR ARCHAEOLOGICAL REMAINS.

1. District Gazetteer, Muzaffarpur (1907).
2. Cunningham's Arch Survey of India Reports, Vols. I and XVI.
3. Annual Report of the Arch. Surv. of India, 1903-4 (1906), 1913-14 (1917).
4. Homage to Vaisali (1949) ed. Mathur and Misra.
5. Jainism in Bihar by P. C. Roy Chaudbury (1956).

[The original papers in the National Archives, New Delhi, Old Records Division, W. B. Government Secretariat, and old records in Muzaffarpur and other places in Bihar are rich sources. Some of these papers are being separately published as Muzaffarpur Old Records—P. C. R. C.]

CHAPTER XIII.

NATURAL CALAMITIES.

FLOODS.

The district of Muzaffarpur, as has been described before, is watered by three great rivers, the Gandak, the Burhi Gandak and the Baghmati, as well as by a number of streams running diagonally across it from north-west to south-east and connecting with its boundary rivers. On the west, separating Muzaffarpur from Saran and joining the Ganga at Hajipur, is the snow-fed Gandak, which issues from the mountains in Nepal. Next to the east is the Burhi Gandak, which rises from a *chaur* in Champaran district near Someshwar and receives on its left bank numerous streams of various sizes before it enters the district of Muzaffarpur. Further east, the Baghmati, rising near Kathmandu at an elevation of 4,750 feet, pierces the line of the Nepal hills, and after entering British territory near Dheng railway station flows between Muzaffarpur and Champaran, and then deflects abruptly to the south-east through the district. In this portion of their course the rivers assume a deltaic character, as their beds, raised by the silt they bring down, are elevated above the level of the surrounding country; and it will thus be understood that a sudden heavy fall of rain over the northern portion of Tirhut, the Nepal *tarai* and the range of hills to the north of it, some 150 miles in length, may easily cause these narrow drainage channels to overflow their banks. When this happens an inundation inevitably follows, and the lower down one goes, the more is the evil aggravated by the converging of the streams towards the same point, and by the net work of private *bandhs* or embankments that have been made year after year for the protection of the villages along their banks. Not only do they make matters worse for the villages lower down the stream, but in the end, when the floods have asserted themselves and spread over the country, they hedge them in and delay their subsidence. Owing to this combination of circumstances, the district has always been subject to severe and widespread inundations, which cause a great deal of temporary suffering, though on the other hand they do much good by fertilizing the soil and increasing its productive powers.

This district is subject to heavy floods and recorded history shows that there were floods in 1785, 1787, 1788 and 1793 in the 18th century. In the 19th century there were heavy floods in 1806, 1867, 1871, 1883, 1893, 1896 and 1898. The want of records for there being no floods from 1806 to 1867 should not be taken to mean that this period of more than half a century was comparatively free from flood. It will mean that records for any major floods are not available for that period. In the 20th century we have records for more or less heavy floods in 1902, 1906 and 1910. There were annual floods every year from 1916 to 1919. There was another high flood in 1928 followed by very heavy

floods in 1944, 1950, 1952 and 1953. The flood in 1953 was very severe in almost all the rivers in North Bihar. There was an investigation into the problem of the flood in 1953 which will be referred to later.

The physiography of the district is such that a heavy flood affects the bulk of the district. The pockets which are more or less severely affected are particularly Seohar in Sitamarhi subdivision and Mahua and Lalgunj thanas in Hajipur subdivision. The northern half of Sadar subdivision is more liable to floods.

Floods have caused great devastation to the district from time to time. In 1788 the flood damaged winter crop of practically the whole district and the effects of the calamities were felt for a number of years. In 1793 the town of Muzaffarpur together with a few *parganas* near-about were under water. The flood in 1867, it is recorded, had destroyed the crops of about 15,000 bighas and damaged 1,500 houses on the right bank of Burhi Gandak also called the Little Gandak. The flood in 1871 was peculiar in nature. There was a fall of 19″ of rain in 36 hours which was followed by a flood in which the greater part of Muzaffarpur town was submerged. About 300 houses were entirely destroyed and a very large number of houses were damaged. The water did not subside for a number of days. The high flood in 1883 would have caused more devastation but for the reconstruction of an embankment in 1874. The area most affected was the country along both the banks of Baghmati and the Little Gandak. Muzaffarpur town again suffered severely. In 1893 the district was visited by not less than three distinct floods, one after another answering to the heavy fall of rains in July, August and September, causing immense damage to crops, houses and roads. A large area of about 800 to 900 square miles was submerged. Most of the *bhadai* and rice crops were lost and over 12,000 houses had collapsed. The flood of 1898 was also due to excessive rain and the Little Gandak overtopped the Turki embankment. Thousands of houses were swept down and the number of deaths from drowning reported by the people was 249.

The floods in the 20th century have been of a severe type. In 1902 a heavy flood caused great devastation of crops and properties including livestock. It was reported that altogether about 40,000 houses were damaged or swept away. The town of Sitamarhi had suffered very badly. In 1906 the height of the water registered at Muzaffarpur was a foot higher than in the flood in September, 1898. About half the area of the district was affected and the damage to crops and properties was very considerable.

The rainfall in 1910 was almost continuous and this led to high flood which damaged the *bhadai* crop. The almost annual floods from 1916 to 1919 were of same type and caused a good deal of damage to paddy.

FLOOD IN 1953.

The floods of Muzaffarpur district in 1953 were rather alarming and the Waterways Division had made a detailed study of the floods. A recital of the salient features will be useful. All the rivers of the district, namely, Baghmati, Purani Dhar, Lakhandei, Burhi Gandak, the Adhwara system of rivers consisting of the rivers Adhwara, Jamura, Sikao, Burhnad, the rivers Singhi Marha, Rato series besides the rivers Baya, Fardo, Kedane, Gangata, Ghaghara and the Gandak had risen in floods. Fortunately the level of the river Ganga did not rise exceptionally high and there was not much of inundation of the area which a high flood of the river Ganga could have effected.

Baghmati.

The heavy flood in Baghmati river affected the area comprising many of the villages of Seohar and Belsand police-stations. The cause of the flood was a heavy rainfall in Nepal territory and all over its catchment area. The catchment area from its origin up to the Dheng bridge in Sitamarhi subdivision is 1,430 square miles and has an approximate length of 91 miles and practically the whole of this area lies in the hilly parts of Nepal territory.

The river Baghmati has a net work of spill channels at various places. The high floods further developed these spill channels and caused inundation of hitherto unaffected parts. For example, the discharge through the spill channels called the Sugia Paradesia spill channels inundated a part of the Champaran district and joining the Bakua Nala, the bulk of the discharge passed on to the area lying in Minapore thana and caused a havoc. All the standing crops were washed away and a large number of houses collapsed in this area which forms almost a *doab* between the Baghmati and Burhi Gandak rivers. The inundation of this area was further aggravated by the Burhi Gandak flood spill from the south, joining that of the Baghmati from north and a large part of Minapore thana was almost converted into a vast sheet of water. This water found its way up to Muzaffarpur-Sitamarhi road on east and to Jhandaha in the 7th mile of Muzaffarpur-Sitamarhi road on the north causing damages to them.

Similar results took place at various other sections. Many of the channels could not cope with the abnormal discharge and water had spilled causing inundation of the areas lying on both its banks. The area lying on the west of Muzaffarpur-Sitamarhi road from the 19th to 21st miles was converted into a vast sheet of water. On the east of Muzaffarpur-Jhandaha road the Bharthua *chaur* area got expanded due to abnormal discharge coming into the *chaur* and had submerged areas extending up to Katra. The roads that had been affected by the spill of the river Baghmati are Seohar-Sisall road, Sisaula-Majorganj road, Madhubani road and Seohar-Belsand road.

The area through which Baghmati flows is the most fertile part of the country and practically every acre of land is cultivated. The fertility

of this area is renewed by the visitation of floods depositing alluvial silt brought from the hills. Flood is almost a necessary evil and this part of the country cannot do without flood. As a matter of fact observation stretched over a number of years has shown that the area which is deprived of the Baghmati spill begins losing the fertility of its soil. The area which remains in constant touch of the Baghmati spill or a new area which is visited by flood retains fertility of the soil.

The enquiry after 1953 flood of Baghmati suggested that the country through which the Baghmati flows is still largely in its infancy so far as the land operations are concerned. On one side the main source of the troubles is the shifting nature of turbulent Baghmati which has been oscillating its course causing devastations in the area, while on its creative side its land building operations are of immense value. The problem is not to prevent floods altogether but to give the excess water an easy run off supplemented by providing necessary irrigation facilities.

The investigations indicated that the permanent solution of the problems could only be effected by the training of the Baghmati river which solution in its term suggests a Multipurpose Dam Project. This is, however, a very long term suggestion and certain interim schemes were approved. The schemes were—

(a) the banking of the river together with suitable sluices provided in the embankments in the zone in which its flood mischiefs are heavy;

(b) canalisation of the river through its various spill channels for irrigation in the areas requiring it by providing weirs above Dheng Railway bridge and construction of Baghmati canal; and

(c) controlling of a number of other spill channels by making easy drainage.

Puranidhar river.

This river also spilled its bank and caused damage due to the heavy rainfall in the catchment and flood in the Baghmati river. Usually this river is in high flood simultaneously with Baghmati river because of the Baghmati above Dheng bridge passes through its *dhar*. The important means of communication affected were the Majorgunj road. Belsand road and Sisawla road.

Lakhandeyi river.

The river was in high spate in the month of July, 1953 and had spilled. There were also breaches in some of the *bandhs*. The spill of the river from Sitamarhi to Nepal border was caused by overtopping of the left bank of the river and the spill passing through low lands joining the flood of the Adhwara system of the river.

The cause of the flood was the heavy rainfall in the basin of Nepal territory and all over its catchment areas. The catchment area of the river from its origin up to the railway bridge at Sitamarhi is 246 square miles and the maximum length of the area is 49 miles.

This river is an excellent water course for drainage and irrigation purpose and passes through a very rich rice growing area. But due to the great Bihar Earthquake of 1934 its bed had upheaved and sections narrowed due to which the drainage of the country was badly impeded causing damage to crop. The water stagnated and brought in its chain Malaria epidemic to the area lying along its course. A scheme for the improvement of the river was evolved and has since been carried out due to which the drainage of the country has been improved and the incidence of Malaria has abated.

So far as the spill of the Baghmati river is concerned the matter requires closer investigation. It is appreciated that the training of river Baghmati will be required to avoid serious flood in the river. For the present a scheme for constructing a regulator across the Lakhandeyi river at Rajkhand has been prepared for irrigation purposes and if executed it is expected to irrigate 15,000 acres of land. It is also realised that there should be more regulators and parallel marginal embankments with a large number of sluices to ensure quick dispersal of flood water.

Burhi Gandak river.

The marginal embankments of this river on the right bank above Muzaffarpur are known as Kanti *bandh* along with several private *bandhs*, viz., Bishunpur *bandh*, Motipur *bandh*, Kharika *bandh* and Kalua *bandh*. The beds of the rivers Fardo and Kedane that carry the spill of Burhi Gandak upheaved and sections narrowed caused by the great Bihar Earthquake of 1934 and they could not drain out the spill discharge of Baghmati. As a result there was an appreciable spill over their banks and a large part of the area of Kurhani police-station was damaged and submerged.

The left bank spill of the Burhi Gandak above Atharghat and below Akharaghat had caused inundation of the area lying on the east of Muzaffarpur-Sitamarhi road up to the 14th mile. Several other *bandhs* had breached causing inundation.

The right bank spill of the Burhi Gandak below Akharaghat had caused severe inundation of the area. The Muzaffarpur-Pusa road was overtopped in the 4th, 7th and 14th miles. Other *bandhs* of this river, namely, Mirapur *bandh*, Dholi *bandh*, etc., had also breached.

The investigations that followed indicated that the rivers Fardo and Kedane which used to serve as drainage channels of the Burhi Gandak spill in a large part of Sadar, Paru, Mahua and Patepur police-stations, were rendered largely ineffective due to their beds being upheaved and sections narrowed during the great Bihar Earthquake of

1934 and hence quick drainage is impeded. Resectioning and desilting of these rivers are indicated to restore the lost drainage links. A scheme for this was taken up. Another remedial measure suggested was that there should be proper marginal embankments along the river Burhi Gandak but it was realised that the marginal embankments should be placed at the proper points and constructed properly.

Adhwara rivers.

The Adhwara system of rivers consisting of rivers Adhwara, Jamura, Sikao, Burhnad had been in high spate in 1953. The cause of the flood was heavy rainfall and the spill channels could not carry the full discharge of the Adhwara system of rivers. The floods of this group of rivers damaged the Sitamarhi-Pupri, Runisaidpur-Pupri and Pupri-Darbhanga roads.

It was held that the old course of the Adhwara river has to be desilted so that it may flow as she used to do before the Earthquake in 1934. At present due to change in the course of this river a great deal of flooding occurs in Jamura and Sikao near Bajpatti while the area along the old course remains dry for want of any flow and is in perpetual need of irrigation. The railway embankment from Bajpatti to Pupri also obstructs the flood water going to the south of the railway embankment. The water level on the north near Bajpatti rose up to rail level, overtopped at places causing suspension of trains for a few days. It was felt that there should be more openings in the railway embankment at suitable places to relieve flooding. This is almost a general popular demand throughout North Bihar that there should be more culverts.

The high floods in the rivers Baya, Fardo and Kedane were due to the beds of the river having been upheaved and sections narrowed due to the great Bihar Earthquake of 1934, and the extra water could not drain off easily. The beds have to be desilted and widened to ensure quick drainage of the country and some work to this effect has been done for river Baya. There have also to be regulators at suitable areas. It is expected that with the proper resectioning of these rivers a number of *chaurs* in the district that remain waterlogged and thrown out of cultivation would be rendered fit for cultivation. Separate schemes for the drainage of a few *chaurs* lying in this belt notably the Raksa *tal*, Manisri *chaur*, Rupnarainpur *chaur*, Paharpur *chaur* and Baraila *chaur* have been sanctioned and are in the course of execution.

The river Ganga.

The river Ganga did not rise exceptionally high in 1953, and there was not much of inundation. But several *bandhs* lying to the left bank of the river were hard pressed and had to be constantly watched to prevent breaches. An area comprising roughly of 21 square miles on the north of Mahnar road consisting of culturable lands had been saved from inundation by the construction of Bansidhar-ka-*bandh* and it is held that this *bandh* has to be extended to make the entire area

immune from flood. Mahnar road also obstructs the free play of the Ganga spill and additional waterways appear to be necessary.

A continuous embankment from Hajipur to Bajidpur embankment in Darbhanga district has also been suggested as necessary for controlling the flooding from the Ganga.

Gangata and Ghaghara rivers.

The flood in the rivers Gangata and Ghaghara was due to the same feature of the beds of the river having upheaved and sections narrowed due to great Bihar Earthquake of 1934. The excess water could not be drained off. These rivers have to be resectioned and regraded and further interlinked with suitable drainage channels from Malmala and Belwari series of *chaurs*. A scheme is being investigated by the Muzaffarpur Waterways Division.

River Gandak.

The embankment on the left bank of the river Gandak has a total length of 52 miles 400 feet and except for a gap of about 300 feet length in Deosar village in the 4th mile it is continuous throughout and motorable in all seasons. This gap is due to collapse of a sluice in 1918 but due to the country being high, flood water does not enter through the gap. There are 25 numbers of sluices in the embankment which are both used for drainage and irrigation. Apart from the main embankment, there are three numbers of retired lines—

(1) Fatehabad retired line in the 19th mile.
(2) Kukuria retired line in the 28th-29th mile.
(3) Alahdadpur retired line in the 32nd-33rd mile.

In 1953 there was the erosion of the marginal land due to formation of a big *diara* in the river. The embankment was breached and a small *bandh* was constructed to resume communication along the old embankment.

It was realised that the old embankment should be protected by the construction of a few spurs and bank pilings, repair of an existing spur and bank pilings and construction of new retired lines and triangular spurs where necessary.

The floods of 1953 are an important land-mark in the district as they were investigated and remedial measures were suggested. The effects could be better appreciated in the light of the observations in the last District Gazetteer as follows :—

"As a rule, though considerable distress and great loss of property are caused by such calamities, these evil effects are of a transitory nature. The chief loss which the cultivators sustain from a flood is the destruction of their cattle, and they are soon recompensed for the loss of their crops by a second crop of exceptional abundance grown on the land fertilized by the silt left by the receding water. These

floods are primarily due not to a heavy downpour of rain in the district itself, but to excessive rain in the catchment basins in Champaran and Nepal. The volume of the floods and their destructiveness are no doubt increased by the local rainfall, but as they come in August or September, when the paddy lands require water, and the uplands that stock of moisture on which the spring crops depend, their damage is restricted and their benefits are widespread. As paddy too is the only crop the loss of which causes famine, it follows that inundations, implying as they do a heavy downfall in the months when paddy crops require it, never accompany famine, though they often precede or succeed it at short intervals. Flood and famine have indeed been strangely associated with one another chronologically in Muzaffarpur. *In 1785 there was a famine; in 1788 flood; in 1866 there was scarcity: in 1867 flood; in 1871 there was flood; in 1873 famine; in 1884 there was flood; in 1885 scarcity: in 1897 there was famine; and in 1898 flood.* "

O'Malley's remarks that the evil effects of the floods are of a transitory nature cannot be said to be very correct now. The northern part of the district comprising of the Sitamarhi subdivision and part of Sadar subdivision is liable to heavy flooding caused by the Burhi Gandak, which runs almost through the middle of the district, the Baghmati, which with its tributary the Lal Bakeya forms part of the western boundary of the district, the Lakhandevi, the Sikao group, and the Rato group of rivers. These rivers except the Burhi Gandak as mentioned before run from north-west to south-east and traverse the area almost diagonally. There are large areas of swamps between these streams which represent areas which were not built up before the streams swung to another channel due to natural causes or obstruction by human agency.

All these rivers have sustained serious changes affecting their sections and grades caused by the earthquake of 1934. Steep banks of the rivers sank several feet below ground and crumbled towards the bed causing upheaval in certain lengths and thereby impeding the normal or natural flow. The beds of many of the *chaurs* or marshes in the district were upheaved by enormous quantity of sand coming from beneath the earth's crust through cracks and fissures while the dwellings in villages and towns cracked and settled below ground. During the flood season immediately after the earthquake the flooding of the homesteads was very acute due to the upheaval of the beds of the rivers and channels. These are some of the reasons why the effects of a large-scale flood now are not of a temporary character.

EMBANKMENTS.

The construction of protective embankments was considered essential as the rivers of the district had caused a great distress. O'Malley

had observed that the construction of protective embankment was one of the boons conferred on the district by British rule. There is a distinct school which does not believe in embankments as giving a proper protection. In any case the embankments have got to be kept in constant repairs and the sudden formation of channels or *dhars* is a peculiar behaviour of the rivers in North Bihar and has shown that the embankments are not always quite a boon.

Gandak embankment.

Attention appears to have been first drawn to the unprotected state of the southern portion of the district by the flood of the Gandak in 1801, when an embankment was constructed extending from the confluence of the river Baya to Harauli, six miles from Hajipur. This embankment does not appear to have been properly constructed and it used to be repeatedly breached leading to immense damage. The Tirhut and Gandak embankments now form a continuous line along the northern bank of the Gandak extending from the head of the Baya river near Karnaul to the confluence of the Gandak and the Ganga near Hajipur, 52 miles in length and protect an area of 1,250 square miles.

Turki embankment.

The Turki embankment along the Baghmati was first constructed in 1810 by the Manager of the Kanti Indigo Factory to safeguard the indigo cultivation of that concern and for more than half a century the embankment was maintained by the Indigo Factory. In 1875 it was taken over by the Government. This embankment extends for 26 miles along the southern bank of the Baghmati and gives protection to an area of 11¼ square miles in the *doab* between that river and the Little Gandak.

Daudpur embankment.

Another embankment is the Daudpur embankment near the Sikandarpur *maidan* at Muzaffarpur. This embankment was constructed in order to check the encroachment of the Little Gandak and to protect Muzaffarpur from flood. The railway embankment on one side, and the Sitamarhi road on the other, both aided by the private embankments, drive the full force of water down on to Muzaffarpur town. The embankment is thus required to protect it from inundation. It extends over 3,250 feet and the retired lines over 2,400 feet and the area protected is 2¼ square miles.

New embankments.

Some other embankments were taken up during the years 1954-55, 1955-56 and 1956-57. This work of constructing protective embankments had been taken up after 1947 and has been continued since.

The flood control schemes (construction of embankments and desilting of channels) in the district of Muzaffarpur have been described as follows by the Irrigation Department in 1957 :—

	Estimated cost in lakhs.	Area benefited in thousand of acres.
1. Akharaghat to Darbhanga district border right bank.	35.91	251.62
2. Akharaghat to Darbhanga district border left bank.	40.00	128.00
3. Akharaghat to Daudpur ...	1.24	0.64
4. Akharaghat to Pakari ...	9.60	4.48
5. Repairs and strengthening of Kanika *bandh*.	10.47	32.00
6. Retired line of Bansidhar-ka-*bandh*	0.49	13.44

Drainage Schemes.

	Estimated cost in lakhs.	Area benefited in thousand of acres.
1. Baraila *chaur*	5.27	9.90
2. Paharpur *chaur*	0.21	0.76
3. Rupnarainpur *chaur*	0.74	1.63
4. Gelhia *chaur*	1.75	2.68
5. Belwari and Malmala *chaurs* ...	14.31	17.66
6. Sondho and Pirapur *chaurs* .	0.93	2.56
7. Narsan *chaur*	1.60	1.80
8. Pororia *chaur*	0.59	1.20
9. Lapaha *chaur*	1.10	1.20
10. Rotma Morsand *chaur*	1.15	3.62
11. Khangura *chaur*	0.10	3.20
12. Bhada *chaur*	0.89	1.60
13. Lebura *chaur*	0.55	0.64
14. Sabtha *chaur*	0.55	2.24
15. Kathaur *chaur*	0.32	0.91
16. Dahnal area experiment works ...	0.64	1.10
17. Raksa *tal*	1.50	2.56
18. Maniari *chaur*	0.69	2.24
19. Agrail *chaur*	0.64	1.10

River Training Schemes.

	Estimated cost in lakhs.	Area benefited in thousand of acres.
1. Protection of Sitamarhi town	3.60	
2. Lakhandeyi River (upper reach) ...	2.90	28.16
3. Improvement of Baya *nala* ...	15.08	87.04
4. Lakhandeyi River (middle reach) ...	3.38	70.40
5. Lakhandeyi River (lower reach) ...	7.42	49.92
6. Desilting of Siari *dhar* ...	4.68	30.72
7. Improvement of Ghaghara *nadi* ...	1.01	2.00
8. Adhwara Scheme (part desilting of Sikao).	0.69	10.00

It may incidentally be mentioned here that the Irrigation Department have concerned themselves with not only executing protection schemes but with combined irrigation programme as well. In their irrigation schemes they have utilised a number of sluices at various points of Tirhut embankment.

The river Gandak has a continuous embankment from Champaran district. The banks of the Gandak are appreciably higher than the surrounding country and in order to safeguard against inundation two series of embankments have been constructed—one on the Serai side and the other along Champaran-Muzaffarpur bank as far as Hajipur. The length of the embankment in Champaran district is 82 miles and that in Muzaffarpur district is 52 miles. There were gaps in highland in Champaran embankment through which flood water flowed during the year 1954 and this was recorded as the highest flood so far. In 1955 these gaps were closed at an estimated cost of Rs. 65 lakhs which afforded further protection to the district of Muzaffarpur. The lowest discharge of water into the Ganga towards the end of March is 10,391 cusecs and the highest recorded flood discharge is 6,42,000 cusecs in July, 1954.

Famine and Scarcity.

Flood and famine have indeed been strangely associated with one another chronologically in Muzaffarpur.

The earliest famine of which we possess any detailed records is that of 1769-70. A serious drought followed in 1783 when relief to cultivators was sought, though the scarcity did not culminate in actual famine. The years 1787 and 1788 were no more propitious as the country was inundated and the cattle died in large numbers and the crops failed. There was a serious drought in 1791 followed by another in 1792; and in 1809 there was considerable suffering owing to the failure of all the principal crops.

Famine of 1866.

The famine of 1866 was, however, the first great famine of the 19th century. This famine was severely felt in Muzaffarpur both as regards its intensity and the wide area over which it was spread. The prices of food crops rose to thrice the ordinary rate and cases of suicide for want of food and of deaths from starvation were reported. The usual grain supply from Nepal ceased; and as there was no demand for labour, the poorer classes suffered extremely and began to desert their homesteads and to migrate southwards in large numbers. The people, reduced by long privation, fell easy victims to Cholera, and 797 persons out of 1,070 died within an average period of 8 days after admission to the hospital. Relief measures were started in June, 1866 which continued till February, 1867. In September, 1866 the extreme pressure began to diminish, owing to the good *bhadai* crops and fortunately it never increased again. The total amount spent in relief was Rs. 39,448. The estimated number of deaths from starvation or disease engendered by want was 60,321.

Famine of 1874.

The next famine which visited the district was the famine of 1874. The rains of 1873 were insufficient all over Muzaffarpur and were not evenly distributed with the result that the outturn of the autumn harvest varied considerably in different parts. In Hajipore and in the Sadar Subdivision the yield was three-fourths of an average while the corn crop exceeded the average harvest. The yield of winter rice crop was about one-fourth of an average crop in Sitamarhi, about three-eighths in the headquarters subdivision while in Hajipore it was one-eighth of the average. The yield of the *rabi* crops was half in the headquarters subdivision, three-fourths in Sitamarhi subdivision and five-eighths in Hajipore subdivision. The failure of crops in Sitamarhi was the greatest, though not inconsiderable in Hajipore. The price of rice varied during the first six months of 1874 from 9 to 10 seers for the rupee or double the usual rate. Corn and millets, which form a large part of the food of the poor and which ordinarily were procurable at the rate of 30 seers for the rupee, rose to 13 to 15 seers during the same period.

Relief works were first opened in Sitamarhi in December, 1873 and in February, 1874, it was necessary to extend them to the headquarters subdivision, but it was as late as April that any relief operation had to be taken in Hajipore subdivision where it was not so necessary as in the north and centre of the district. Altogether 47,000 tons of grain were sold, distributed and advanced as loans or paid as wages. Rs. 2,21,000 were advanced in the shape of loans; Rs. 1,41,000 were extended in charitable relief, the number of persons in receipt of such charity rising from 6,550 in April, 1874 to 62,500 at the end of June which fell in October to 2,115. Rupees 11 lakhs were paid as wages, the number of labourers employed in relief works rising from 851 in

December to 3,27,248 or about 1/7th of the total population in May. The relief afforded by the Government was on a large scale.

Scarcity of 1876, 1889 *and* 1892.

Three periods of scarcity intervened between this famine and that of 1896-97. In 1876 there was some scarcity in Sitamarhi owing to the failure of the rice crop. In 1889 the failure of the winter rice caused scarcity in the tract of country running along Nepal frontier. Gratuitous relief had to be given to some 200 people as early as February which rose to 8,000 in August. This was gradually withdrawn in October of the same year.

Part of the district was again affected in 1892 owing to the deficiency of the rains in 1891 when the winter rice and *rabi* crops failed. The total area affected was 1,300 square miles, the tracts which suffered most being Lalganj thana in Hajipore and Sheohar thana in Sitamarhi. Relief works were opened in March and closed in early July. The total number relieved was however hardly more than one per cent of the total population of the affected area.

Famine of 1896-97.

Then came the famine of 1896-97 but on this occasion the people showed unexpected power of resistance, owing to better communication and their improved material condition. The rains of 1896 commenced in May; there was a heavy fall of over 13½ inches in July, which caused some floods and filled the swamps at an early date before a rice crop could be obtained from them; but up to the end of July the total fall was only 1/10th of an inch below the normal. The rain was followed by two long periods of drought, one in August and the other in September and after the middle of that month no rain fell. The whole district was severely affected excepting certain portions. The worst parts of the district were the Sitamarhi subdivision and the northern half of the headquarters subdivision. In the Hajipore subdivision the part severely affected was a tract along the northern boundary of the Mahua thana spreading into the south of the headquarters subdivision and a small tract between Lalganj and the railway.

The price of rice started rising high from October, 1896 when rice was sold at 8 seers to the rupee in the Muzaffarpur town: and in November test relief works were started at Sheohar, Belsand and Parihar in the western and northern parts of the Sitamarhi subdivision, which parts are usually affected badly. The number of persons in receipt of relief rose till the end of May, when 59,000 persons with 4,000 dependants were employed on relief works and 59,000 more were in receipt of gratuitous relief. The number of the latter increased to 72,000 in July. The famine was over by the end of September, 1897. The largest proportion of the population relieved in a single day either gratuitously or on relief works was 10 per cent and it was estimated that of those who attended relief works, at least 75 per cent were landless

labourers. The total expenditure on relief work was Rs. 5,64,000 and on gratuitous relief Rs. 4,91,000, in addition to which over two lakhs of rupees were advanced under the Agriculturists' Loans Act. The import of rice into the district during the famine amounted to nearly 33,000 tons, chiefly Burma rice from Calcutta. The affected area covered 1,851 square miles with a population of 16,60,000, the reported death indeed fell short of the average of the three preceding years by about 25,000.

Famines and scarcity of the 20th century.

In the beginning of the year 1909 agricultural operations ceased in the district and there was loss of crops consequent on the failure of rains in the preceding year but this gloomy picture was averted due to timely rain in the later part of the year.

In 1914 due to bad weather condition and on account of failure of *Hathiya* and *Chitra* rains causing the failure of all the three crops, much distress prevailed. The prices of foodgrains ruled very high affecting the middle and landless classes. In 1920 hailstorms damaged the *rabi* crops. In 1924 the harvest in the district was a total failure and 1932 faced a drought due to failure of rains. But the stock of grains relieved the acuteness of the situation.

In 1948 the food situation in the district worsened on account of two diverse factors. In Hajipore subdivision the floods completely damaged the *bhadai* and paddy crops whereas in the same period Sitamarhi subdivision was experiencing drought and crops specially paddy suffered on that account. Adequate relief measures both in the flood affected areas and the drought areas, were provided by the Government which mitigated the suffering of the people.

Due to the drought and consequent failure of crops in 1950 the district was adversely affected in 1951. There was a total failure of *bhadai* and *aghani* crops. The rise in prices of foodgrains and their non-availability in sufficient quantity created much hardship for the common man and even the well-to-do middle class people felt the pinch of the scarcity. The scarcity condition became very acute especially in Sitamarhi subdivision where there was a total failure of *Hathiya* rains in 1950 and the paddy crop of December, 1950, and January, 1951, was a miserable failure. Less than 25 per cent of its usual crop was harvested with the result that famine conditions began to manifest themselves by February, 1951. The price of rice rose from Rs. 25 per maund to Rs. 45 per maund. The subdivision of Sitamarhi was declared a distressed area and relief measures as detailed in Famine Code were taken up. As a result of the measures taken famine conditions began to decrease in Sitamarhi subdivision from September, after the harvest of autumn crop of *marua*, *bhadai*, paddy, maize, etc. But still the famine condition did not go away from other parts of the

district. Due to drought of 1950-51 the situation in Hajipore subdivision was almost verging on famine condition by the end of March, 1952. It took full one year to bring the situation under control in that subdivision through various relief measures.

Relief measures for the district were at once started. Inter-district embargo was imposed on most of the essential commodities as an emergency measure.

In Sitamarhi subdivision relief measures were started from April, 1951 which continued till October of that year. The principal heads of relief were (*i*) Hard manual, (*ii*) Light manual, (*iii*) Gratuitous relief, and (*iv*) Sale of Government grains through fair price shops on which more than 5 lakhs of rupees were spent. Moreover, a sum of 13 lakhs of rupees was granted as Taccavi loan to the cultivators which went a long way to avert starvation. Free grain was supplied to about 12 thousand destitutes. Light manual labour was arranged primarily to afford assistance to women. Fortunately no starvation deaths occurred. About one hundred thousand maunds of grain was sent to the Sitamarhi subdivision every month for sale through the fair price shops located throughout the subdivision.

In Hajipore also the Government tried to tide over the famine by giving relief to the people on the lines of Sitamarhi. There was grant of loan mainly in form of Taccavi to help the agriculturists in their agricultural operations amounting to Rs. 9,71,115. Fair price shops were opened throughout the subdivision. The entire urban and 75 per cent of the rural population was put on ration. These relief measures and better *bhadai* crops of 1952-53 ultimately improved the position.

In 1957 there was a general failure of *Hathiya* rains which caused widespread damage to the winter paddy crop. Peculiarly enough this failure of the *Hathiya* rains was common throughout the State. The prospects of the sowing of *rabi* were not also very hopeful. Fair price shops were opened and the consumption of imported wheat had been encouraged. All the possible water reservoirs were tapped for irrigating the fields. Even the fire engines of the Fire Service stationed at Muzaffarpur were utilised to draw water for irrigation purposes. The charges for tube-well water were slashed down. Pumping sets were distributed. *Bandhs* and other irrigation schemes were taken up to utilise water for the crops. Short term crops and consumption of imported wheat were encouraged. Schemes were taken up to give employment.

PROTECTIVE SCHEMES.

Any permanent protection to the district like Muzaffarpur can only be given by protecting the country-side from inundation and by a provision for adequate irrigation. The problem of irrigation as a protective measure was taken up as long ago as 1876 when there was a scheme put forward for the construction of a high level irrigation canal leading from the Baghmati to the Lakhandeyi river calculated to irrigate 1,52,000 acres of *kharif* and 50,000 acres of *rabi* with a weir. This scheme was first rejected by the Government of India but was

revived on a smaller scale after the famine of 1896-97 and the work was proceeded with for famine relief. A large number of smaller schemes have been taken up from time to time to ameliorate the condition of *raiyats* by giving them water for the fields. Tube-well irrigation is easier but not yet popular owing to higher cost for water in comparison to canal water.

Gandak Project.

A big project for harnessing Gandak river for more food and power has been taken up. When this project is completed the precarious problem of the district of Muzaffarpur along with some other districts of North Bihar will be partially solved.

Although the Gandak project is still at the stage of a scheme it is meant not for Muzaffarpur only but also for the districts of Saran, Champaran and Darbhanga of Bihar and Gorakhpur and Deoria of Uttar Pradesh and Nepal. Some of the salient features of the scheme may be mentioned here.

The mountain basin of Gandak is known as Sapt Gandaki named after seven tributaries of Gandak traversing the region. Further down the river collects the discharge of a number of hilly streams before it debouches in the plains through a deep gorge at Tribeni situated in Nepal at the border of Champaran district of Bihar. Adjoining lower down is Bhaisalotan from where the existing Tribeni canal takes off. From here it flows in a south-easterly direction forming the natural boundary between the States of Bihar and Uttar Pradesh for a length of 28 miles. It flows by the side of this border in Bihar for another 44 miles from where it separates the districts of Champaran and Saran and winds its way in south-easterly direction to meet Ganga at Hajipore opposite Patna.

The region through which Gandak flows including Muzaffarpur district has a high incidence of density of population and the economy is purely agricultural. Perennial irrigation is very much needed and that is why the Gandak project was taken up in 1948 and the scheme has been revised in 1957 to the tune of Rs. 17.64 crores.

The scheme consists of a barrage construction and headworks across Gandak at Bhaisalotan about 1,000 feet below the take off of existing Tribeni canal to divert the river water for irrigation and power, construction of western canal system for providing annual irrigation in Nepal, Gorakhpur, and Deoria districts of Uttar Pradesh and Saran district of Bihar, construction of eastern canal system for providing annual irrigation in the districts of Champaran, Muzaffarpur and Darbhanga and construction of four hydro-electric power houses, two on the main western and two on the main eastern canals for generation of power.

The Gandak project can only be implemented if Nepal Government agrees. The matter has been taken up under a joint consultation of Nepal and the State Government of Bihar.

Earthquake of 1934.

Earthquakes have occurred in the district of Muzaffarpur at the intervals of about 100 years or so. There was an earthquake in 1743 and again in 1833 which was repeated after 100 years in 1934. This part of Bihar being on the seismic belt according to Dr. Dunn, the chances of recurrence of earthquake is greater than anywhere else.

The greatest of the natural calamity to which the district was subjected to in the twentieth century was the Earthquake of 1934, which occurred at 2.16 P.M. on the 15th of January. The earthquake which lasted for only one minute and a few seconds created a terrible havoc throughout the district. Buildings were turned to debris and fissures and depressions occurred all round. Over one thousand square miles of land was filled by enormous jagged fissures and pitted with small volcanic craters from which sand or grey mud spread over the fields. Roads and railway bridges were damaged in all directions and all forms of communications by rail, road and telegraph were shattered. The upheaval in the rivers, *chaurs* and lakes was very marked and at places river beds got dry, the high lands became low lands and *vice versa*. At places unusual phenomenon in the fields like oozing out of black sands and water up to a height of 4 to 5 feet was seen for several minutes after the tremor stopped. Culturable fertile lands became barren and sanded up, for the reclamation of which the Government had to distribute sand removal loans to the cultivators. It was reported that 2,539 persons were killed in the district in this earthquake and many hundreds were injured. Many of the dead bodies were recovered weeks after the earthquake. There was a case of a man being brought out alive from the debris five days after the earthquake.

Muzaffarpur Town.

The worst sufferer from this calamity was Muzaffarpur itself. About 75 per cent of the buildings of the town were completely damaged as 90 per cent of the buildings before the earthquake had been erected with mud brick walls i.e., brick work built with mud-mortar instead of lime or cement mortar. The impact was more disastrous on double-storeyed buildings. Roads became impassable due to accumulation of debris of houses. Hundreds of persons were killed by the falling of houses on them or were buried under the debris. The narrow streets also made an escape from the falling masonry very difficult. The casualties in Muzaffarpur town accounted for 956 persons. The casualties were high in thickly populated parts of the town with narrow lanes like Mahajantoli, Purani Bazar, Chaturbhuj Asthan, Bhairo Asthan Road, Brahmantoli and Gudri Mohalla. The Chandwara Waterworks was badly damaged by the earthquake. The main pipe line of water supply was also badly damaged. The lighting of the town was hampered by the damages to electric connections. The Sikandarpur Maidan at Muzaffarpur which was used as the landing ground for the aeroplane had been terribly cut by the earthquake which made it

unsafe for use. Mr. Fairweathers, a private pilot and engineer succeeded in marking out a strip of land suitable for landing and a plane from Calcutta requisitioned by Government landed at Sikandarpur on the 16th January at mid-day. A large part of the walls of the district jail had collapsed for which the troops had to relieve the police of the duty of guarding the jail at night. The sanitation of the town was completely upset.

Sitamarhi Town.

The town of Sitamarhi also was damaged very badly. The roads to Sitamarhi were damaged extensively and the town was completely cut off for sometime. Railway communication was dislocated and at places the railway lines were twisted and torn and lost the previous alignment. The level of the country changed and the town of Sitamarhi was so much damaged that at one time it was feared that it would have to be altogether abandoned as unsafe for re-building purposes on account of changes in the contour of the locality.

The Sugar Mills were all damaged and this at a time when there was a bumber sugarcane crop after a number of lean years due to insufficient rainfall. The prices of the commodities were very high and the economic condition of the people was miserable.

Relief Measures

Relief measures were immediately taken into hand. To assure the people the Governor of the Province visited the town on 17th January 1934. Various shelter and relief works were started by the Government and some philanthropic institutions like Servants of India Society, Marwari Relief Committee, Menon Relief Committee, etc. Sri Rajendra Prasad, now President of the Republic of India organized relief work on behalf of the Indian National Congress. 12 Relief Centres and four Sanitation Centres were opened. There was complete co-ordination among all the Relief Committees. Government relief took up construction of shelter sheds. water supply and tube-well boring in Muzaffarpur town with Government grant and Viceroy's Relief Funds. Mr Oliff Lee, Town Engineer took up construction of colony sheds and made them available to the sufferers and homeless. Relief was also given in the shape of clothing, foodgrains and housing materials. Drinking water in watering lorries was supplied by the municipality to the sufferers in colonies and shelter sheds

The Indian Medical Association had also sent a batch of workers for giving first-aid and medical relief. Free kitchens were started by Gurmukh Langer Relief Committee which fed not less than a thousand of earthquake sufferers every day. The demolition of the dangerous houses affected by the earthquake was taken up by the Sappers and Miners who were posted here from Rurki. The Governor of Bihar arranged with General Mackmullen, General Officer Commanding, Eastern Command at Jhansi for a party of 70 men for Muzaffarpur for

the purpose of demolishing buildings and doing repairs to bridges. They were replenished by further detachments. Municipality was given grants to take up road-widening schemes. Help in the shape of money and materials poured into the district and all possible endeavour was done to minimise the miseries of the people. When things settled down the economic condition of the district got a little fillip in the shape of reconstruction activities. Cleaner areas and better modelled houses and roads grew up.

The district and particularly the urban areas could recover so quickly because there was an all-round keenness to tackle the misery and the State Government got unrestricted support from all sections of the public. The Bihar earthquake commanded interest and sympathy not only from all parts of India but also from some of the philanthropic bodies from different parts of the world.

CHAPTER XIV.

LAND REVENUE ADMINISTRATION.

EARLY HISTORY.

An account of the Land Revenue Administration of Muzaffarpur district prior to 1875, when it was separated from Darbhanga, must necessarily be a sketch of the early land revenue history of Tirhut (including Hajipur), owing to the difficulty of obtaining separate figures for the present district. The first assessment of land revenue in Tirhut, of which there is definite mention in history, was made in 1582 by Todar Mal, the great Finance Minister of Akbar. The result of the assessment was that an area of 81,737 acres in *Sarkars* Tirhut and Hajipur was settled at a revenue of Rs. 11,63,020, which gives an incidence of about Re. 1-7-0 per acre. During the period which elapsed between this assessment and the grant of the *Diwani* in 1765 to the English East India Company, there were two assessments of which we possess statistical information, namely, one made in Aurangzeb's reign in 1685 and the other in 1750 during the Viceroyalty of Alivardi Khan. The result of the first was to increase the revenue to Rs. 17,98,576, i e., by about 55 per cent and that of the second was to lower it to Rs. 16,48,142. No records can, however, be found of the exact areas dealt with, or what was cultivated at the time the assessments were made. But it is clearly mentioned in a *farman* of Aurangzeb, issued in the thirteenth year of his reign, that *Sarkars* Tirhut and Hajipur then included 102 and 11 *mahals* respectively. We can form an idea of Mughal revenue administration from the *farman*, which confers the office of Kanungo for the whole of *Subah* Bihar on three persons. They were to collect the revenue of the whole *subah* and were to receive 8 annas per hundred rupees as remuneration, besides *dastur* and *nankar*. It is interesting to note that these revenue officers were to transmit yearly genealogical lists of families with accounts of the former and present state of the augmentations and decrease of population(1). They were to exert themselves to the utmost for the welfare of the inhabitants and not to "attempt a single oppressive measure against them". A subsequent *farman* issued in the twenty-fifth year of Shah Alam's reign, i e., in 1783-84, confirms the descendants of the three persons in the office of Kanungo for the whole of Bihar on more or less the same terms(2).

By the *Diwani* grant of 1765 the right of collecting revenue in Bengal, Bihar and Orissa was transferred to the English Company; but actual collection continued to be in the hands of the Nawab's officers. The Company appointed Raja Sitab Roy to supervise the collections in Bihar. This dual control resulted in much anomaly and oppression. The appointment in 1769 of European supervisors to prevent extortion and speculation only made "confusion worse confounded". In 1770 a Revenue Council of Control was established

at Patna, and next year the Court of Directors sent out their well known order "to stand forth as *Diwan* and by the agency of the Company's servants to take upon themselves the entire care and management of the revenues". Accordingly a European Collector was appointed in Tirhut for the first time in 1771. But this assumption of direct management having proved a financial failure, the European agency was replaced by Indian *amils* under the control of a Provincial Council at Patna. The five-yearly settlement effected in 1772 having also failed to give satisfaction, annual settlements were made from 1778 to 1780, and these settlements with farmers and zamindars being equally unsuccessful, Tirhut was again placed under a European Collector in 1782.

EARLY COLLECTORS OF TIRHUT.

The careers of the early Collectors of Tirhut are somewhat important as illustrating the character of administration in those days of the Company's rule in this country. Francois Grand, a native of Lausanne, having first served in the East India Company's forces, and then as a writer and a commercial agent, was appointed Collector of Tirhut in 1782. Away from the headquarters of the presidency, Grand could unscrupulously engage in private trade. He was practically the founder of the European indigo industry in Tirhut. In his report of 1785 he says: "I took possession of a country (Tirhut and Hajipur) yielding a revenue of about 7 lakhs of rupees, but which had suffered from the depredations committed by those who were compelled to abandon the charge to me .... I recovered a large balance due from the farmers to Government, quieted and appeased without bloodshed every disturbance, brought back the disobedient to a just sense of their errors, augmented the revenue, introduced the manufacturing of indigo, encouraged the establishment of indigo works and plantations, erected three at my own expense, and thus possessed a fortune of £ 15,000 sterling." In 1787 Lord Cornwallis, hearing of his commercial enterprises, removed him from the collectorship of Tirhut and nominated Robert Bathurst as his successor. But Bathurst proved little better than Grand. Shortly after his appointment, and inspite of positive orders to the contrary, he began to dabble in the indigo business on his private account.(3) For some years he carried on a joint business with an indigo planter, until there were loud complaints against his conduct from some planters, whose displeasure he had managed to incur and was transferred from his station. He too must have acquired a considerable fortune like his predecessor.

From 1781 *to* 1789.

The history of revenue administration from 1781 onwards is marked by yearly settlements with zamindars, or, if they were recusant, with farmers of revenue. The correspondence of the period is full of the difficulties the Collector had to meet with both in settling

and realizing the revenue. Himself ignorant of the capabilities of the soil, his subordinates were a hindrance rather than a help and the enormous number of petty proprietors, for which the district was even then notorious, made a fair settlement a very difficult task. Imperfect as was the assessment, the difficulties of collecting it were aggravated by the lawless state of the country, which was infested by bands of robbers, and by frequent natural calamities. Often the zamindars themselves and the Indian *amils* were in collusion with the robbers. In 1783 the Calcutta Board of Revenue deputed Mr. (afterwards Sir) John Shore to Patna for effecting a new settlement of the province of Bihar and for directing such measures as he should think proper for realizing the " heavy and unusual balance which has fallen in the collections. "(4) The Collector of Tirhut was accordingly asked to prepare immediately, a *jamma wasul baky*(5) of the *mahals* of his district. A regulation passed on the 12th August of that year authorized the Committee of the Revenue Chiefs and the Collectors to punish such zamindars or landholders, who were proved to have resisted any written process directed to them, even by confiscating their lands.(6) But the settlement made in accordance with the spirit of this regulation does not seem to have yielded very satisfactory results. The abolition in April, 1786, of the office of Indian Dewan, who had been joined with the Collector " in the superintendency of the revenue ", left to the Collector the " sole charge and full responsibility of the revenues " in the district; but this too did not improve matters much.

Decennial and Permanent Settlements.

In May, 1789, the Governor-General in Council resolved to carry out the Court of Directors' orders for a new settlement of Bihar for a period of ten years, which if approved by the Court, would become permanent without any further changes or modification. The *jamma*, which each zamindar was to pay, was to be fixed by the Collector on fair and equitable principles subject to the approval of the Revenue Board, and the *Sadar kistbundi* was to be so regulated as to afford the zamindars " all possible convenience in the discharge of their rents with due regard to the security of Government. "(7) It was expressly stated in the resolutions of the Governor-General in Council that the settlement was to be made with the actual proprietors of the soil, whether zamindars, *chaudhuries* or independent *talukdars*, and that in no case were *sayer* collections to be included in the new settlement. Although systematic attempts were made to acquire information on the capabilities of the soil and other matters of rural economy, the methods of enquiry were not sufficiently detailed to afford an adequate basis for a settlement in perpetuity. Indeed the decennial settlement was concluded more hastily than steadily, with the result that when the Permanent Settlement was effected in 1793, no less than 60 per cent of the total area of Tirhut, that is, an area of about 3,900 square miles, escaped assessment. The total land revenue fixed was Rs. 9,83,642, which gives an incidence of 9 annas an acre; of this

about Rs. 4,36,000 represented the demand of the present district of Muzaffarpur. One good thing, however, which resulted from the Permanent Settlement was that, unlike in Bengal, it served in Tirhut to rescue the real zamindars from the farmers of revenue, who had been placed over them and to restore proprietary rights to those who were about to lose them.

On the other hand, incalculable injury was done to the *raiyats* by the absence of any accompanying measures for their protection and by the harsh provisions of Regulation VII of 1799, which extended to the landlords of Tirhut, as well as of the rest of the province, the power to distrain the crops of their *raiyats* and in certain cases to arrest their persons for arrears of rent without any reference to the courts. The country suffered until recent decades from the failure of earlier administrators to gauge adequately the extent of the oppression practised by the landlords of Tirhut upon their unfortunate tenantry.

NINETEENTH CENTURY REVENUE HISTORY.

The principal features in the 19th century revenue history of Tirhut are the resumption of revenue-free grants by lapse on the death of the tenure-holders or on the ground of invalidity, the revenue survey of 1843—49, the enormous increase in the number of estates, and the settlement operations of 1892—99. During the earlier part of the century, moreover, temporary settlements with farmers of revenue, chiefly on account of the persistent recusancy of the proprietors to come to terms with the revenue officers, were very common. No less notorious was the *khas* management of estates temporarily resumed. The Commissioner of Saran wrote to the Collector of Tirhut in 1833, commenting on the "continued injustice sustained by the landlords by the present extensive system of *khas* management or temporary engagement with *maliks* or farmers ".(8) The progress of the Permanent Settlement in Tirhut and the adjoining district of Saran was indeed very slow and the Revenue Board, as the Special Deputy Collector of Tirhut observed in 1833, were "deeply sensible of the injustice and breach of public faith involved in the extreme delay" that had taken place in bestowing the benefits of a permanent settlement upon those proprietors who were "unquestionably entitled to that immunity under the law of 1793. "(9).

Free land grants in the shape of *brahmottar*(10) and *devottar*(11), or of *jagirs*, were exceptionally abundant in Tirhut and in most cases dated from Mughal times. The validity of the claims to these were examined between 1830 and 1850 and active operations were undertaken for the resumption of those revenue-free grants which proved invalid. In this way, altogether 10,66,000 acres were resumed and the revenue was increased by Rs. 6,77,387. Muzaffarpur's share was 44 per cent of the area resumed (4,37,226 acres) and 47 per cent (Rs. 3.18,366) of the new assessment. It cannot be vouchsafed that in extending the hand of resumption justice was in all cases done

by the over-zealous revenue officers.(12) However, as a result of the resumption proceedings 3,018 new estates were assessed and in 1850 the number of estates borne on the revenue roll of Tirhut was 5,186.

PARTITION OF ESTATES.

From the middle of the 19th century the partition of estates went on at a remarkable pace. In 1895 the number of estates on the revenue roll of Tirhut was as high as 32,000. It is true that resumption helped to swell their number before 1850; but, apart from this, the law of partition was responsible for the addition of over 27,500 estates to the revenue roll of 1790 and the number of estates increased twenty-fold owing to partitions alone. Muzaffarpur, being always a land of petty zamindars, accounted for a very large proportion of the increase. From 1875 to 1881 alone the addition to the number of estates in the district was 4,046 and by 1895 there were no less than 19,420 revenue-paying estates. The subdivision of estates after 1895 went on with equal rapidity, and in 1904-05 the number of revenue-paying estates (in Muzaffarpur) had risen to 21,050, a number larger than in any other district of Bengal except Chittagong.

RATE OF REVENUE.

The rate of revenue at the beginning of the present century was only 9 annas to 11 annas per acre and the average rate of rent on the other hand was Rs. 3-14-8, or more than six times the rate of revenue. The allowance fixed for zamindars at the time of the Permanent Settlement was one-tenth of the assets, but their profits increased very nearly six-fold in one hundred and ten years. A vast amount of this increase arose from extension of cultivation in the first half of the last century; in the second half, however, it was largely due to the enhancement of rent. The total land revenue demand in 1904-05 was Rs. 9,78,596 payable by 21,050 estates, of which all but 49 with a demand of Rs. 16,735 were permanently settled; besides these, there was one Government estate with a demand of Rs. 1,583.

REVENUE SURVEYS.

The first great revenue survey carried out during the British period in Tirhut was that of 1843—49. This survey resulted in the discovery of land still remaining unassessed; but its chief importance was that it put a stop to the disputes about village boundaries, which had been a fruitful source of litigation and a great administrative difficulty. In Tirhut this survey began in 1846 and was completed in 1849. It showed the area of the district to be 6,114 square miles with 7,586 villages, the land revenue being Rs. 14,62,548 or just under six annas an acre. This was followed by the survey of the *diara* tracts along the Ganga and the Gandak between 1865 and 1868, which added 46 new estates to the revenue roll. In 1882 experimental settlement operations were begun, Muzaffarpur being selected for the experiment, because it was regarded as one of the least prosperous districts in Bihar and the relations of the people to the land as the least satisfactory. The

settlement was carried out successfully in 235 villages and was terminated in 1886. In 1892 a survey and the preparation of a record of-rights were begun in this district and were brought to a successful conclusion in 1899. These operations were first undertaken in Bengal for entire districts which came under the Permanent Settlement. The survey showed the area of the district to be 3,035 square miles, with 4,505 villages. Holdings were found to the number of 9,70,495 with an average size of 1.97 acres and 44,13,567 plots were measured with an average size of 0.44 of an acre.

Private Land of Proprietors.

The private land of proprietors was found to be 67,729 acres, or nearly 4 per cent, of the area in agricultural occupancy, the average size of the holdings being 1.63 acres and the land so held being greatest in the thanas where competition for land was keenest. Besides this, the land held by them in direct cultivation, but not true *zirat* covered 1,95,910 acres or 11.5 per cent, of the settled agricultural area, the average size of the holdings being 4.34 acres. At the beginning the present occupied area and the average size of the holding was 3.04 acres. The tenure-holders absorbed 3.7 per cent with holdings averaging 6.65 acres. This was the largest average holding under any status and was due to the extensive areas held in direct possession by European planters for the cultivation of indigo. Rent-free *raiyats*, on the other hand, with 2.2 per cent had holdings averaging 1 acre only, the smallest average in the district.

Different Classes of Raiyats.

Raiyats at fixed rates occupied 2.2 per cent of the total occupied area with holdings averaging 2.50 acres. This was the largest average for *raiyati* holdings, but the area held by these *raiyats* was appreciable only in the Hajipur subdivision, where it was just under 5 per cent of the occupied area. Settled and occupancy *raiyats* had 82 2 per cent of the total number of holdings and occupied 12,70,474 acres, or 74.8 per cent of the occupied area. The average size of the holding was 1.64 acres but this was not the average amount of land which the *raiyat* held for the support of himself and his family. He might hold land under another status and be might also possess several holdings under one status.

The occupancy *raiyats* were an insignificant class holding only 1.6 per cent of the area and 2 per cent of the number of holdings. The percentage of land held by them was highest in the Hajipur thana, where there were many *diara* lands in their possession. Under-*raiyats* had an interest in 5.3 per cent of the holdings and held 4.1 per cent of the occupied area, the average size of the holding being 1.39 acres.

Size of Estates.

Owing to the extreme subdivision of property the size of estates diminished very considerably as years went on. In 1870 the average

size of an estate in Tirhut was 303 acres; but at the end of the century the average size of an estate in Muzaffarpur was only 93 acres, that is, smaller than in any other district of Bengal, Bihar and Orissa except Balasore and Cuttack. The minuteness of proprietary interests did not end here, for innumerable subdivisions of even these petty estates were common, many of them being split up among different sets of sharers according to private partitions. It was found that there were on the average 5½ estates and 37 proprietors to a village each holding 12 acres, of which only 9 acres were cultivated. The average number of proprietors to a joint estate was 5 and to a privately partitioned estate 17 and one case was found in which a village with an area of 179 acres contained three estates which had been partitioned by their 159 proprietors into 114 sub-estates.

Transfers of proprietary interests in Muzaffarpur were, however, comparatively few, largely owing to the presence of indigo planters in the district. When a zamindar got into financial difficulties he often went to a planter for relief, knowing that the concern would gladly advance him money in order to get a lease of his estate and in this way many properties were saved from sale. The value of proprietary rights, moreover, was so high that the purchase of them was almost prohibitive. Where sales were effected, lands generally passed to landlords, and the money-lender had acquired little hold over the proprietary interests in land.

TENURES AND UNDER-TENURES.

Nearly one quarter of the district was in the occupation of tenure-holders; but there were few degrees of sub-infeudation. Under-tenures occupied only two per cent of the area, the creation of a large number of them being due to the practice of factories taking *kaikana* leases. Rent-paying tenures occupied the largest area, with 24.6 per cent of the area brought under settlement and the holders of these had interests in over one quarter of the separate proprietary interests in the district. Temporary tenures prevailed, only 2.4 per cent of the total area of the district being occupied by permanent rent-paying tenures. It is worthy of note that whereas in Muzaffarpur rent rates had risen out of all proportion, proprietors were very averse to granting *mukarari* leases and consequently demanded very high rates, which would only be paid when the need was very great, that is, when land was required for erection of factory buildings. The proportion of the total area held in temporary tenure at the close of the last century was 22 per cent and indigo planters held no less than 14 per cent. Of all the leases in the district 58.2 per cent were farming leases, 33.9 per cent were *zarpeshgi* or mortgage leases, and 7.9 per cent were of other kinds, most of them being the usufructuary mortgagees called *sadhwa patwa*. *Zarpeshgi* leases were most numerous where there were factories. Rent-free tenures included *birit*,(13) *brahmottar*, *shivottar*(14), *vishnupit*(15), *bhatottar*(16) and

fakirana(17) as also service tenures, such as *jagirs*, *malikana* tenures and maintenance tenures, such as *nankars* and *madad-mash*.

CONDITION OF THE TENANTRY.

With regard to the condition of the tenantry the remarks of Stevenson Moore, the Settlement Officer, may be quoted: "The general impression is that the tenantry of Bihar are a down-trodden body of men, in complete subservience to their landlords who evict and enhance their rents at pleasure. The impression, however, is only partially true. Like most things in India, it is largely a question of caste. I believe this impression to convey a correct idea of the condition of low caste *raiyats*, such as Dusadh, Kurmis, etc. but cultivators of higher caste, like Babhans, are usually quite prepared to fight their landlord if he attempts to oppress them." It may be accepted as a general truth that landlords in North Bihar were unusually powerful and their tenants unusually depressed; but instances may be cited in which the tenantry were truculent and combined to adopt an unreasonable and actually hostile attitude towards their landlords.

TWENTIETH CENTURY REVENUE HISTORY.

During the early part of the present century there was practically no change in the land revenue history of the district. The total land revenue for 1900-01 was Rs. 9,77,440. Of this amount Rs. 9,60,920 was on account of the permanently settled estates, and Rs. 15,433 was on account of the temporarily settled ones. The number of revenue-paying estates was 20,341 out of which 20,287 were permanently settled and 54 were temporarily settled. The number of estates held direct by Government in 1910-11 were 3 and that of temporarily settled estates was 55. The number of permanently settled estates in 1910-11 was 22,174 showing an increase of 1,887 over the figure for 1900-01. The increase was due chiefly to the partition of estates.

Though minor survey and settlement operations have taken place from time to time, there has not been any revision settlement for the whole district during the present century. A revision settlement was proposed about 1919, but operations had to be postponed *sine die* for unavoidable reasons. In 1942-43 temporarily settled estates numbered 27, while the number of estates held direct by Government was 22.

Before the passing of the Land Reforms Act of 1950 there were three categories of estates in the district, revenue paying, Government and revenue free. Revenue paying etsates numbered 25,575, yielding a total revenue of Rs. 9,58,539-12-3. Government estates numbered 52, yielding a revenue of Rs. 27,792-10-4. There has been some change in recent years in regard to the collection of cess; prior to 1944 one anna per rupee was the rate of collection. In that year it was raised to one and a half annas, while in 1948 the rate was further increased to two annas per rupee.

AGRARIAN LAWS.

From time to time, there have been changes in the law for the benefit of the *raiyats*. Rent in kind was oppressive to the *raiyats*. The commutation to cash rent was permissible under section 40 of the Bihar Tenancy Act. A rent commutation drive was launched by Government and a large number of Rent Commutation Officers with powers under section 40 of the Bihar Tenancy Act were appointed. The drive, however, considerably reduced the price of produce for some time. Produce rents were also commuted into cash rent by agreement between the parties. The Irrigation Act was also made elaborate and vigorously implemented. The Collectors were empowered to take up irrigation schemes for repairs and additions even without the consent of landlords in cases of emergency and advance loans to the tenants. A liberal drive was made for providing the tenants with money and they were encouraged to file loan applications under the Land Improvement Loans Act, Waste Land Reclamation Act and Agriculturists' Loans Act. The *abwas* or illegal realisations from the *raiyats* had already been abolished. In the last Survey and Settlement Operations, these *abwabs* had been scrutinised. It may be mentioned here that the subordinate *amlas* of the indigo planters and other big landlords were usually responsible for evolving a regular system of various kinds of *abwabs*. Owing to the vigilance of Revenue Officers and spread of education, the applications against the realisation of such *abwabs* have practically ceased to be filed in the last 20 years. In the reported case of Umeshchandra Mitra *versus* Baroda Das Mitra (A. I. R. 28 Calcutta 17) a number of *abwabs* were held illegal. There are a number of other interesting cases regarding *abwabs* besides this reported case.

RENT REDUCTION.

The low price of agricultural food-stuffs from 1931 onwards for several years made the cash rent rather inequitable. There was an agitation for rent reduction and ultimately provision had to be made under section 112 of the Tenancy Act for the reduction of rent. The operations started from 1938 and continued till 1941 when it stopped abruptly due to the outbreak of war which brought about a rise in the price of essential commodities. The object of the proceedings under section 112 of the Tenancy Act was to reduce the amount of rent payable by the occupancy *raiyats* of five specific classes of the holdings in certain specified areas of the province

Rents of holdings of the following five categories were under reduction :—

(1) produce rents commuted into cash rent by courts under section 40 of the Bihar Tenancy Act during the period from the 1st January, 1915 to the 31st December, 1933;

(2) produce rent commuted into cash rent by agreement between the parties during the same period;

(3) rents enhanced by the courts on the ground of increase in prices under section 30(*b*) of the Bihar Tenancy Act during the same period;

(4) rents enhanced by contract between the parties or illegally enhanced during the period; and

(5) rents fixed for holdings created during the same period at excessively high levels, that is to say, new settlements.

The tenants as a whole were not contented with the various measures of relief made available to them through rent reduction and rent commutation proceedings, etc., and still wanted further relief. The large number of zamindars who had *bakast* lands used to get some of them cultivated by tenants on produce rent permanently or by year to year settlement but did not grant rent receipts for the same with a view to prevent acrual of occupancy rights to them and proving titles as occupancy *raiyats* through documentary evidence. The proceedings under section 145, Criminal Procedure Code usually take a long time to decide possession. For speedy disposal and giving opportunities to the tenants to nominate members to the Arbitration Board and thus give better opportunities to place the evidence, Bihar Bakast Dispute Settlement Act was passed. This gave a considerable relief. According to this Act when the Collector is satisfied on enquiry that there is dispute between landlord and tenant over *bakast* lands and there is likelihood of breach of peace, he refers the dispute to Arbitration Board, the Chairman of which is to be appointed by the Collector and members to be nominated by the parties if they like. To impart further relief to the tenant, the Bihar Management of Estates and Tenures Act was enacted but after sometime it was repealed. Subsequently the Bihar Land Reforms Act, 1950 was passed. After the decision of Supreme Court in May, 1952, this Act came into operation. Under the provisions of this Act, intermediary interests were notified and taken over by Government. Under the amendments of the Bihar Land Reforms Act Government notified the whole of the district of Muzaffarpur as the area and all the intermediary interests vested in the State from the 26th January, 1955. This abolished the long existing zamindari system and the *raiyats* would henceforth pay rent and cess to Government.

LAND REFORMS ACT, 1950.

A brief note on the background for the passing of the Bihar Land Reforms Act may be given. The problems relating to the land revenue system had engaged the attention of the Government and the public men in Bihar and Bengal where the Permanent Settlement of 1793 prevailed. Towards the end of 1938 the Government of Bengal had appointed a Land Revenue Commission to examine generally the existing land revenue system of Bengal in its various aspects, with special reference to the Permanent Settlement. After examining the question in all its aspects and recording evidence, the Commission gave its report in 1940. The serious defects in the zamindari system were pointed out and the Commission came to the conclusion that the Permanent Settlement and the zamindari system should be replaced by

a *raiyatwari* system for improving the economic condition of the cultivators and that Government should be brought into direct relationship with the actual cultivators by the acquisition of all the superior interests in agricultural lands.

With the Congress Ministry in Bihar this question was actively taken up. The Bihar Legislative Assembly had adopted a resolution " That this Assembly recommends to Government that immediate steps be taken for the abolition of the zamindari system ". As the vital interest of the State required immediate steps to be taken for improving the agricultural production and the lot of the cultivators, the Legislature enacted various laws towards that end. As already mentioned some of such measures were the amendments to the Bihar Tenancy Act, the Chotanagpur Tenancy Act, Bakast Dispute Settlement Act, 1947, Rent Reduction Operations, etc. Two other measures were conceived with a view to establish direct relations between the State and the tiller of the soil, viz., the Bihar State Management of Estates Bill, 1947, and the Bihar State Acquisition of Zamindaris Bill, 1947. Two years later the Bihar State Management of Estates and Tenures Act, 1949 (Bihar Act XXI of 1949) was passed. The validity of some of these Acts was challenged in court. The Bihar Abolition of Zamindaris Act, 1948, received the assent of the Governor-General on the 6th July, 1949. The validity of this Act was challenged and while petitions were pending in the High Court the State Act was repealed by the Bihar Legislature and another measure called the Bihar Land Reforms Bill, 1949, was introduced in the month of December, 1949. The above Bill was passed and became later as the Bihar Land Reforms Act, 1950, on the 25th September, 1950, and was published in the *Bihar Gazette Extraordinary* of that date.

The Land Reforms Act was also challenged by some of the landlords of the State. Parts of this Act were declared *ultra vires* by the Patna High Court. The Constitution was amended by the Constitution Amendment Act, 1952. Even after the amendment of the Constitution the Act was challenged but the Supreme Court declared the Act to be *intra vires* except for some minor sections. Government decided at first to take over the big estates and tenures having gross annual income exceeding Rs. 50,000. In pursuance of this decision of Government several estates of this status were notified. The State Government later decided to take over the entire zamindaris and intermediaries. Under the provisions of section 3(*b*) of the Bihar Land Reforms Act all the estates and all the tenures had passed to and became vested in the State with effect from the 26th January, 1955, as mentioned before.

ABOLITION OF ZAMINDARI.

The implementation of the provisions of the Land Reforms Act involved a lot of difficulties at the initial stage for the local administration. There were speculative transactions on the part of many of the

landlords and the tenants for whose benefit the Act was passed were also not always responsive.

The collection by the Collector at the beginning has been somewhat poor due to various reasons. The outgoing landlords had in most cases realised rents for the period subsequent to the date of the vesting of their estates in Government. Tenants also had readily paid rents to the outgoing landlords as the latter had allowed a handsome remission ranging from 4 annas to 8 annas per rupee. Out of the Government share of rent it was found that the outgoing landlords had realised a very big percentage from the tenants. The Land Reforms Section had to take necessary steps for the realisation of this amount from the outgoing landlords. The outgoing landlords also did not file the village papers of all the villages and the tenants too were not agreeable to produce rent receipts as a result of which the collection work was very much handicapped.

The fact that there has been no recent Survey and Settlement Operations was an impediment. The Land Reforms Section in the Collectorate had immediately to take up field *bujharat* for the purpose of bringing up-to-date the records-of-rights. The Tauzi and Cess Department were converted into Rent and Cess Departments. The Registration Department had to fade away. The Land Reforms Section of the district was further entrusted with the agricultural statistics, execution of minor irrigation and improvement schemes, local development work, besides collection of rent and cess, etc. For the sake of revenue administration each police-station is formed a revenue jurisdiction called *anchal* under an officer to be called Anchal Adhikari except in case of police-stations which are big ones consisting of two *anchals*. In each *anchal* there is a Circle Inspector under the Anchal Adhikari. Each *anchal* is divided into *halkas* and each *halka* is placed under the jurisdiction of a revenue subordinate called Karamchari. It is expected that the number of Gram Panchayat *halkas* will be near about one thousand, each *halka* comprising a Gram Panchayat. The *halka* has been formed on the basis of population roughly on a unit of 3,000 persons and an area of 5 square miles.

The implementation of the Land Reforms Act in abolishing the zamindari has not had a sufficient experiment to make a correct appraisal of the impact on the economic condition of the people. We are far too close to the great experiment which has been taken up with the sole idea of bringing more relief to the tenantry. At the initial stage there are bound to be a certain amount of opposition, possible mistakes owing to the inexperience of the staff and the possibility of some corruption at the lower level particularly cannot be eschewed. But there cannot be two opinions regarding the broad-based policy which has brought in land reforms.

One of the criticisms of the land reforms has been the delay in paying the compensation to the landlords. The delay is because of the necessity of a *bujharat* of the papers and this is partially due to the

non-co-operating attitude of the landlords in not making over a complete set of papers of their *kutchery*. There have also been certain unfortunate changes in the set up for the working of the Land Reforms Act. At first it was decided that estates having an income of Rs. 50,000 and above should be taken over. Work had started according to this set up. But now all the zamindaris have been taken over and naturally there has been an additional strain due to the change in the set up. The collection of rent and cess has been taken up in the vested estates through Karamcharis and *sairats*(18) had been made by public auction with the highest bidders. The *kutcheries* and *tahsil* offices of vested estates have also been taken over. Educational institutions, hospitals and dispensaries, hitherto run by landlords are now being maintained by Government out of the Improvement Grant. The expenditure over such institutions is, however, for the present, limited to the amount which the outgoing landlords used to spend. Improvement works, such as desilting of tanks, repair of *kutchery* buildings, construction and repair of roads, bridges and culverts, etc., have been taken up for the benefit of the tenantry.

The Land Reforms Act is the fore-runner of other reforms which are on the anvil in connection with the problem of land distribution, regulation of rent, co-operative farming, etc. After the complete abolition of intermediaries, it will be necessary to enact tenancy reforms in order to give full security of tenure to the tenants and to stop the various types of evictions and ejectments which may have been done by the outgoing landlords. Some steps, as indicated before, have already been taken to meet this problem. Personal cultivation has also to be regulated. At the moment, there is no limit to the extent of lands that one can hold for personal cultivation although it is not physically possible for him to look after it. A ceiling on agricultural holdings will have to be fixed sometime or other as a necessary corollary to the land reforms movement. The First Five-Year Plan drawn up by India Government had laid down that the rate of rent exceeding one-fourth or one-fifth of the produce should be regarded as requiring special justification. The movement of co-operative farming has not yet been taken up. The Bhoodan Movement sponsored by Acharya Vinoba Bhave has taken up the question of distributing land to the landless labourers. Although no spectacular results have been obtained for *bhoodan* in Muzaffarpur district, the movement has had a sobering effect.

It has been correctly held that merely enacting progressive land reforms will not be enough and that there should be a proper and efficient administration for implementing the land laws so that the difficulties and harassment to those who are the beneficiaries are reduced to the minimum. There has got to be a clean and honest administration particularly at the village level as otherwise, much of the value of progressive land reforms will be lost. The Second Five-Year Plan has also laid down a clear picture regarding the land reforms that have yet to be introduced. The basic idea is that

the Bhoodan Movement as well as Government legislation should be able to solve the complicated land problems in our country.

DEVELOPMENT WORK.

The change over of the character of the administrative set up into that of a Welfare State that has been indicated before has brought in a large number of projects to develop the resources of the district. A brief review of the work done under some of the items will be of interest. There has been a great encouragement, as mentioned before, to develop the irrigation and drainage of the district from 1950. The Land Revenue Administration Reports make out that in the year 1951-52, 132 wells, 2 tanks, 2 *bundhs*, 5 *pynes* and 5 medium irrigation schemes at a total cost of Rs. 1,53,549 were executed under Private Irrigation Works Act. In 1952-53, 11 *pynes*, 4 *bundhs* and 6 sluice gates at a total cost of Rs. 67,586 were executed. Under Private Irrigation Works Act, 216 projects were completed at a total cost of Rs. 3,79,716. In 1953-54, 33 medium irrigation works consisting of a number of *pynes*, *bundhs* and sluice gates were executed at a cost of Rs. 1,22,959. Under Private Irrigation Works Act, 189 projects were completed at a cost of Rs. 3,00,000. In 1954-55, the Department of Agriculture had completed a number of *pynes*, *bundhs*, etc., at a cost of Rs. 72,311. In this year under Private Irrigation Works Act, 187 minor schemes were completed at a cost of Rs. 2,23,003.

As has been mentioned before, this district has not got much of waste land. But there are some *chaur* lands which may be cultivated. Portions of the big *chaur* at Kurhani in Sadar Subdivision were reclaimed in 1954-55. There are some very big *chaurs* in Hajipur subdivision but any reclamation of them will involve a huge expenditure.

During the recent years, however, the relations between landlords and tenants became somewhat strained. This was due to the fact that there were amendments to the Bihar Tenancy Act in 1954-55 for the purpose of securing to *bataidars* the right of occupancy and the enforcement of the Bihar Land Reforms Act. The landlords, on the face of the Bihar Land Reforms Act, tried to obtain and hold as much as possible of their *gairmazurua malik* and *khas* and similar lands in their *khas* possession to save them from the operation of section 6 of Bihar Land Reforms Act, 1950. The lands given on *batai* or as *jagir* for personal services were attempted to be taken back under *khas* possession. All this naturally led to a certain amount of strained relationship between the landlords and the tenants. In 1952-53, a "No Rent Campaign" was lodged by the Socialist Party and others but had very little effect on the collection of rent.

REFERENCES.

(1) *Muzaffarpur Collectorate Records.*—The eleven *mahals* in Hajipur were : Hajipur, Akbarpur, Manni Ruttee, Boosary, Balagach, Bissarah, Sereissa, Imadpur, Gudhasson, Mulki and Nepore—*vide Parwannah of Abul Hosain, Royal Diwan of Bihar* (Muzaffarpur Collectorate Records).

(2) *Muzaffarpur Collectorate Records.*

(3) *Ibid.*

(4) From Revenue Committee to Collector of Tirhut, 25th September, 1783 (*Muzaffarpur Collectorate Records*).

(5) Arrears of revenue.

(6) From Revenue Committee to Collector of Tirhut, 25th September. 1783.

(7. Copy of a circular letter from Governor-General in Council to Revenue Board, 20th May, 1789 (*Muzaffarpur Collectorate Records*).

(8) Letter, dated 18th December, 1833 (*Muzaffarpur Collectorate Records*).

(9) Letter to Secretary, Revenue Department, 10th September, 1833 (*Muzaffarpur Collectorate Records*).

(10) Grants for the support of Brahmins.

(11) Grants for the support of temples and deities.

(12) From Commissioner of Bhagalpur to Collector of Tirhut, 18th April, 1838; from Sadr Board of Revenue to Commissioner of Bhagalpur, 4th September, 1838 (*Muzaffarpur Collectorate Records*).

(13) Vritti-maintenance grant.

(14) Grant for the support of the deity Shiva.

(15) Grant for securing the good-will of God Vishnu.

(16) Grant for the maintenance of *bhats*, a class of Brahmins.

(17) Grant for the maintenance of *fakir*.

(18) Settlements of trees, bamboos, etc.

[Stevenson Moore's Final Report of Survey and Settlement Operations (1901), Muzaffarpur Old Records (under publication) and "Gandhiji's First Struggle in India" by P. C. Roy Choudhury may be consulted for further investigation.]

CHAPTER XV.

GENERAL ADMINISTRATION.

In the last one hundred years there have been several administrative changes. *Sarkar* Tirhut consisting of the present districts of Muzaffarpur and Darbhanga previously was under the jurisdiction of the Commissioner of Bhagalpur Division. As a result of the Santhal revolt under the Commissionership of Bhagalpur it was felt that the Commissioner of Bhagalpur should be given some relief. It was further felt that the district of Tirhut needed more assistance in inspection particularly in regard to its police administration. The work of the Commissioner of Patna was held to be lighter and the district of Tirhut was transferred to the Patna Commissionership in 1856.

The notification of the Gazette transferring this jurisdiction was published on the 15th October, 1856 and communicated in letter no. 731, dated the 15th October, 1856, by W. Grey to the Officiating Secretary, Board of Revenue.

Tirhut district was considered rather unwieldy and it was divided into two in 1875, the western portion being constituted the district of Muzaffarpur and the eastern portion being formed into a separate district, called Darbhanga after the name of its headquarters. The name Tirhut is still, however, used as a convenient appellation for the country included in these two districts.

Tirhut Division consisting of Muzaffarpur, Saran, Champaran and Darbhanga districts was separated from Patna Division on the 18th November 1908. The reasons were administrative and the old records show that there was a controversy whether the newly-formed division be called Muzaffarpur Division or Tirhut Division. The headquarters of Tirhut Division was located in Muzaffarpur town which is also the headquarters of the district of Muzaffarpur.

The last District Gazetteer of Muzaffarpur (1907) describes the administrative set up of the district as follows :—

> " The administration of the district is in charge of the Collector under the Commissioner of Patna Division; and for general administrative purposes it is divided into three subdivisions with headquarters at Muzaffarpur, Hajipur and Sitamarhi. The headquarters subdivision is under the direct supervision of the Collector, while each of the other two subdivisions is in charge of a Subdivisional Officer exercising the powers of a Deputy Collector in revenue matters. At Muzaffarpur the Collector is assisted by a staff of Deputy Collectors consisting generally of five officers. In addition to this staff, there are two officers engaged on special branches of work, viz., a Special Deputy Collector in charge of Excise and Income-tax, and a Deputy

Collector employed on partition work. An Assistant Magistrate and one or two Sub-Deputy Collectors are also generally posted to the headquarters station, and in the cold weather a Joint Magistrate is deputed there. The Subdivisional Officers of Hajipur and Sitamarhi are also usually assisted by a Sub-Deputy Collector."

In the paragraph quoted above, it was mentioned that the headquarters subdivision was under the direct supervision of the Collector. Now the headquarters subdivision, known as the Sadar subdivision, has been placed under a Subdivisional Officer like the other Subdivisional Officers for Hajipur and Sitamarhi. There has been an enormous expansion of administrative work and a very large number of officers are now posted at both the district headquarters and at the subdivisional headquarters. Income-tax is now a Central subject. There has been an increase in the staff under the District Magistrate to cope with the expansion of administrative activities and particularly because of the aims of the Welfare State now.

The present district of Muzaffarpur has an area of 3,018 square miles and a population of 35,20,739 souls. The civil and revenue administration of the district is in charge of the District Magistrate or Collector who is under the administrative control of the Commissioner of Tirhut Division with headquarters at Muzaffarpur town. The District Magistrate is the pivot of the district administration. He is responsible for the maintenance of law and order and co-ordinates the various administrative departments while exercising an over-all supervision over them. The police administration is directly under the District Magistrate. With the separation of the executive and judiciary, the District Magistrate has been divested of a part of his magisterial function but is not totally absolved of it. He is also the revenue chief for the district and with the abolition of zamindari, the District Magistrate's functions as the revenue chief has become all the more important and engrossing. The present policy of the State Government is to evolve into a Welfare State and the various development schemes that have been launched in pursuit of this policy are the special trust and responsibility of the District Magistrate. Various new schemes like Community Projects, Development Blocks, Basic Education and other projects under the First and Second Five-Year Plans, etc., have been taken up. The District Officer has to see that they are being implemented.

For general administrative purposes, the district is divided into three units known as subdivisions with headquarters at Muzaffarpur, Hajipur and Sitamarhi. The District Magistrate or the Collector is assisted by an Additional Collector who generally looks after the revenue and development work under the control of the District Magistrate. Each of the subdivisions is under a Subdivisional Officer who is vested with magisterial powers besides his revenue jurisdiction. The Subdivisional Officers are assisted by Deputy Collectors and Sub-Deputy

Collectors, some of whom are Magistrates. At each of the subdivisions, there is a Deputy Collector incharge of the Land Reforms and development work. He is placed under the Additional Collector. The Land Reforms Deputy Collector is responsible for implementing the land reforms policy of the State Government and to collect revenue. Each of the revenue subdivisions is divided into several circles which are under the officers known as Anchal Adhikaris. Details of the machinery for Land Revenue Administration are to be found in a separate chapter.

POLICE.

The district police administration is under the Superintendent of Police who is under the administrative control of the District Magistrate. The Superintendent of Police is directly responsible for maintaining law and order. His headquarters is at Muzaffarpur. He is also under the administrative control of the Deputy Inspector-General of Police of the Northern Range, the headquarters of which is at Muzaffarpur.

For police purpose, the district is divided into 5 police circles which fall in the three subdivisions. There are altogether 26 police-stations and 4 police outposts in the district. They are as follows :—

Circles.		Police-stations.		Outposts.
		MUZAFFARPUR (SADAR) SUBDIVISION.		
1. A division	...	(1) Muzaffarpur (Sadar).		
		(2) Muzaffarpur (town).		
		(3) Kurhani.		
		(4) Kanti.		
2. B division	...	(5) Minapur.		
		(6) Sakra.		
		(7) Paru.		
		(8) Sahebganj	...	Hatha, Benibad.
		(9) Baruraj.		
		(10) Katra.		
		HAJIPUR SUBDIVISION.		
3. Hajipur	...	(11) Hajipur.		
		(12) Mahua.		
		(13) Raghopur.		
		(14) Lalgunj.		
		(15) Mahnar	...	Goraul. Biddupur.
		(16) Pateypur.		
		SITAMARHI SUBDIVISION.		
4. Sitamarhi	...	(17) Sitamarhi.		
		(18) Bairagnia.		
		(19) Majorganj.		
		(20) Belsand.		
		(21) Runi Saidpur.		
		(22) Sheohar.		
5. Sursand	...	(23) Sursand.		
		(24) Pupri.		
		(25) Sonbarsa.		
		(26) Bela.		

The police organization for the district of Muzaffarpur in 1956 consisted of one Superintendent of Police, three Deputy Superintendents of Police, one Sergeant-Major, six Inspectors, two Sergeants, 57 Sub-Inspectors, 58 Assistant Sub-Inspectors, 38 Havildars and 892 Constables. Timely additions or depletions to this staff were made to suit administrative exigencies.

The rural force consists of *dafadars* and *choukidars* who hold inferior status in the police rank. There are 249 *dafadars* and 3,435 *chaukidars* in the district. Each village has got one or more *chaukidars* who look after the police work in the village. The *chaukidars* are commissioned to give round duty in their beats during the night and to apprehend criminals if any. Any anti-social activity detected or reported in a village will immediately have to be reported to the police thana and the village *chaukidar* has his primary responsibility to do this. The *chaukidar* also reports the vital statistics, crop statistics and other matters of administrative interest in detail to the Sub-Inspector of Police incharge of the police thana. A *dafadar* is placed above a number of *chaukidars* and usually one police circle has got one or more of *dafadars*. Usually the *dafadars* are men of certain status and they accept the job more for the prestige it carries than the actual pay.

From the police staff, it may be mentioned that one police represents 135 square miles and 745.6 persons.

The detailed statistics of crime under the principal heads in the district for 1944—56 are as follows :—

Year.	Murder.	Dacoity.	Robbery	Burglary.	Theft.	Riot.	Swindling.
1944 ...	20	65	7	1,171	428	70	22
1945 ...	28	43	22	1,134	586	72	15
1946 ...	18	62	23	1,398	624	96	30
1947 ...	32	73	19	1,405	603	120	11
1948 ...	28	71	21	1,580	598	159	7
1949 ...	32	42	22	1,155	551	159	9
1950 ...	33	31	16	1,316	756	134	8
1951 ...	30	87	27	1,081	784	99	27
1952 ...	26	82	22	1,082	640	124	21
1953 ...	34	38	24	1,064	701	145	18
1954 ...	40	34	22	1,299	732	144	31
1955 ...	36	32	13	1,264	698	122	28
1956 ..	27	34	15	1,089	646	112	31

GRAM PANCHAYAT.

The organization of the Gram Panchayats in several villages of the district under the Bihar Panchayat Raj Act, 1947, is a help to the police organization.

The Gram Panchayats have been authorised to try offences under certain sections of the Indian Penal Code and also certain sections under other Acts, but the responsibility of the Police Department for law and

order of the villages continues all the same. The organization of village volunteer force under the Gram Panchayats has been of some help to the police. Details of the functions of the Gram Panchayats are to be found in the chapter under Local Self-Government.

Home Guards.

The State Government responded to a general feeling of the people to have some military training so that they could be useful to the administration in any emergency. The partition of the country in 1946 had brought about various internal disorders and the assistance of the army in aid of civil power had to be procured to run the normal administration. It was realized that there should be a volunteer force which would not only give some military training to the people but also form a line of defence to fall back upon if there is an emergency. The State Government decided to raise a volunteer force to be called the Bihar Home Guards and the Home Guards Act was first passed in 1947 by the Bihar Legislature. The particular feature of the organization was its voluntary character.

The headquarters of the Bihar Home Guards, the office of the Indian Commandant, Home Guards and the Central Training Camp at Bihta (Patna) came into being in May, 1948. The first initial training for three months was imparted to the volunteers in 1948 and during 1948 to 1951, altogether 6,000 trainees were given the initial training. The village volunteers are also called up once a year for a refresher course lasting for four weeks. The scheme was extended throughout the State and during 1949—51, 5 battalions were established. Muzaffarpur has the distinction of getting the first battalion headquarters on 1st January, 1949. The jurisdiction of this battalion extends to the districts of Muzaffarpur, Saran and Champaran. The battalion is under a Battalion Commandant equal to the rank of a Deputy Superintendent of Police.

Under this battalion, there is a District Home Guards Office for Muzaffarpur. It has a strength of a few trainee Home Guards. Besides, there are some permanent Government staff, viz., one Company Commander, two Havildar clerks and one Sepoy Havildar. The Home Guards of the district are called up for 3 days in a month or 6 days in an alternate month at their respective district offices.

Jail.

In the last District Gazetteer O'Malley observes regarding the jails at Muzaffarpur as follows :—" There is a District Jail at Muzaffarpur and a subsidiary jail at each of the outlying subdivisional headquarters. The subsidiary jail at Sitamarhi is reported to be unsuited for the detention of under-trial or convicted prisoners, and Government has condemned it and agreed to the construction of a new subsidiary jail. For a short time this jail was affiliated to the Darbhanga District Jail, and the Samastipur subsidiary jail to the Muzaffarpur District Jail, but the arrangement did not work well and was given up some years

ago. The jail at Muzaffarpur has accommodation for 437 prisoners, distributed as follows :—barracks without separate sleeping accommodation are provided for 290 male convicts, 46 female convicts, 16 juvenile convicts, 26 under-trial prisoners, 11 civil prisoners and 13 Europeans, the hospital holds 27 prisoners; and there are cells for 8 prisoners. The subsidiary jail at Sitamarhi has accommodation for 22 males and 4 females, and that at Hajipur for 5 under-trial prisoners, 4 male convicts and one female convict. The total daily average number of prisoners confined in the District Jail in 1905 was 320, of whom 289 were males and 31 females; it was 7 at Hajipur and 19 at Sitamarhi. The industries carried on at the District Jail are the manufacture of mustard oil, castor oil, carpets, matting, aloe fibre, coarse cloth and dusters."

There has been a fundamental change in the jail administration. From June 1st, 1942, the district jail at Muzaffarpur was raised to the status of a Central Jail with two affiliated sub-jails at Sitamarhi and Hajipur towns. The present jail at Muzaffarpur has accommodation for 1,406 prisoners distributed as follows :—

	Capacity—		
	For male.	For female.	Total.
1. Barracks	1,345	22	1,367
2. Cells	34	1	35
3. Civil ward	4	...	4
Total ...	1,383	23	1,406

This is the only jail in the State which has got a leper ward with an accommodation for 50 leper prisoners. The leper prisoners from all over the State are kept here and given treatment.

The subsidiary jail at Sitamarhi has an accommodation for 60 male and 6 female prisoners. Hajipur subsidiary jail has accommodation for 58 males and two females.

The main industries at the Central Jail in Muzaffarpur are the manufacture of mustard oil, carpets, *durrie*, *newar*, sheets, phenyle and soap. The other lines are weaving, laundry, tailoring, carpentry, cane-work and leather work.

Jail Reforms.

The fundamental ideas regarding jail administration have undergone a radical change. The prisoner is now helped to reform himself so that he could be an useful citizen after release from the jail. With this object in view, several reforms have been carried out recently. Some of them are listed below :—

(1) Better type of utensils have been given to the prisoners in place of iron cups and plates.

(2) The cases of long-term prisoners are reviewed quarterly by the Provincial Board of Visitors.

(3) Solitary confinement and very hard labour such as oil-pressing by prisoners have been abolished.

(4) Newspapers and books at Government cost are now supplied to even prisoners of Division III.

(5) Facilities for more interviews to the prisoners have now been allowed. There is now very little restriction on the prisoners for their correspondence.

(6) Good conduct and good work by way of participating in mass literacy campaign, etc., are encouraged by more liberal remission of the jail sentence.

(7) A literacy campaign is a particular feature of the jail now. There are night schools in the jail. Prisoners are also allowed a certain amount of smoking at their own cost. Amenities like radios and gramophones have been provided.

Punishments.

The following are the figures of convictions from 1948—56 :—

Year.	Magistrate Courts.	Sessions Courts.	Panchayat Courts.	Total.
1948	461	195	..	656
1949	601	322	..	923
1950	507	234	..	741
1951	407	109	1	517
1952	844	258	..	1,146
1953	799	345	..	1,144
1954	844	347	..	1,191
1955	797	334	..	1,131
1956 . ..	948	398	..	1,346

CIVIL JUSTICE.

The permanent judicial staff entertained for the administration of Civil Justice consists of the District Judge, two Subordinate Judges and three Munsifs at Sadar and two Munsifs at each of the two subdivisional headquarters of Hajipur and Sitamarhi in the district. But in view of the abnormal increase in the number of civil cases, two Additional Subordinate Judges and three Additional Munsifs at the district headquarters and two temporary Courts of Additional Munsifs at Hajipur are temporarily employed. Out of the three temporary Courts of Additional Munsifs at Sadar, one is employed exclusively for the disposal of execution and miscellaneous cases arising out of execution cases.

For checking corruption and giving better facilities to the litigant public, the Registrar system was first introduced in this judgeship in

1945 on a temporary basis. The post of Registrar has become permanent. He assists the District Judge in disposing of matters pertaining to administration.

Decennial average of annual statistics of civil suits during the decade from 1901—10 to 1941—51 and annual statistics for 1951 to 1955 in the Judgeship of the district are given below :—

Period.	Total number of suits instituted.	Total value of suits.	Number of insolvent petitions presented by debtor.		Insolvent petitions presented by creditors.	Number adjudged to be insolvent during the year.
			Under arrest or imprisonment.	Not under arrest or imprisonment.		
1901—1910 ..	23,056·2	2,45,24,982.1	6·2	9·2	..	6·3
1911—1920 ..	21,777·2	39,39,800·7	5·7	18·2	..	9·5
1921—1930 ..	22,421·6	65,25,197·1	6·2	32	·6	13·8
1931—1940 ..	31,858·2	52,34,422	9·6	38·4	·6	22·5
1941—1950 ..	18,631·4	71,02,358·9	1·7	4·8	..	3·7
Annual figures for—						
1951 ..	9,928	66,65,272	..	1	..	..
1952 ..	11,255	98,85,358	1	2	..	4
1953 ..	11,252	70,46.586	..	3	1	1
1954 ..	10.825	54,82,637	..	..	..	..
1955 ..	10,560	59,22,474	..	1	..	1

CRIMINAL JUSTICE.

Regarding criminal justice O'Malley mentions thus in the District Gazetteer of Muzaffarpur (1907) : " Criminal Justice is administered by the District and Sessions Judge, the District Magistrate and the various Deputy and Sub-Deputy Magistrates at the headquarters and subdivisional stations. The district of Champaran is also included within the limits of the Muzaffarpur Sessions Division and of the jurisdiction of the Court of the District Judge; but the Court of Sessions for cases committed from Champaran is held at Motihari, the headquarters of that district The sanctioned staff at Muzaffarpur consists, in addition to the District Magistrate, of 4 Deputy Magistrates of the first class and one Deputy Magistrate of the second or third class. Besides these officers, an Assistant Magistrate and one or two Sub-Deputy Magistrates exercising second or third class powers are generally posted there. The Subdivisional Officers at Hajipur and Sitamarhi are almost invariably officers vested with first class powers, and they are usually assisted by Sub-Deputy Magistrates of the second class. There are also Benches of Honorary Magistrates at Muzaffarpur (15 members) and at Hajipur and Sitamarhi (6 members each), all of which exercise second class powers. In all there are 27 Honorary Magistrates of whom eight are authorised to sit singly."

There have been two notable changes since these observations were made. The district of Champaran has now been excluded from the jurisdiction of Muzaffarpur. Champaran has now got a separate judiciary for the administration of Criminal Justice. The other notable change is the gradual introduction of the scheme of separation of Executive and Judicial functions from July, 1952. Since then cases of petty and executive nature only are tried by the Magistrates in the executive service who are under the control of the District Magistrate and the rest are tried by the Munsifs and Judicial Magistrates who are under the administrative control of the District and Sessions Judge.

The district head of the judiciary is the District and Sessions Judge who is assisted by two Assistant Sessions Judges. Since after the introduction of the separation of the Judiciary and Executive a number of Judicial Magistrates, Munsif Magistrates and Honorary Magistrates have been placed under the administrative control of the District Judge. The Munsif Magistrates, Judicial Magistrates, Honorary Magistrates both at the district headquarters and at the subdivisions have been vested with the necessary magisterial powers.

Statistics of Criminal Justice showing the decennial average annual figures for the decades 1901—10 to 1941—50 and annual figures for 1951—55 are given below :—

Period.	Number of cases.		Number of persons.				Number of witnesses.		Remarks.
			Acquitted or discharged.		Convicted.				
	In sessions Courts	In Magistrates' Courts	Sessions.	Magistrates	Sessions.	Magistrates.	Sessions.	Magistrates.	
1901—10	47·2	..	36·9	..	58·6	..	352·6	..	
1911—20	49·3	..	62·4	..	82·1	..	479·7	..	
1921—30	40·2	..	71·4	..	69	..	626·2	..	
1931—40	53·9	..	97·2	..	103·6	..	787·8	..	
1941—50	100·9	..	330·4	..	178·3	..	1,451	..	Figures of Magisterial Courts have been given from the 1st July, 1952 the day of separation of Executive and Judicial functions here.
Annual figures for—									
1951 ..	91	..	306	..	114	..	1,174	..	
1952 ..	94	1,973	353	3,290	140	1,017	1,395	8,005	
1953 ..	87	3,583	357	8,271	147	2,061	1,365	18,087	
1954 ..	104	3,113	307	8,175	126	2,208	1,219	14,788	
1955 ..	98	3,050	253	8,954	105	2,423	1,149	17,030	

Income-tax.

There is an Income-tax Office at Muzaffarpur. Usually there is one Income-tax Officer and one Additional Income-tax Officer for the district. The Income-tax Circle of Muzaffarpur has jurisdiction over the whole of the district but particular cases belonging to different categories are under the Income-tax Officer, Special Circle Investigation, Patna. The two Sugar Factories are assessed by the Income-tax Officer, Special Circle Investigation, Patna. Some of the engineering concerns and the Muzaffarpur Electric Supply Company, Ltd., are assessed at Calcutta. In view of the special notification under section 5(7A) of the Income-tax Act, assessments are also made outside the State for some of the concerns as they have their principal place of business outside the State. Some of the important cloth firms and rice mills are assessed by the Income-tax Officer, Special Circle, Patna. Income-tax is a Central subject.

The district is important and noted for a large business in distribution of consumer goods, such as, cloth, grains, spices, etc. The cloth business in Muzaffarpur district is very well organised. There are also quite a few flourishing rice mills in Sitamarhi subdivision.

The following are details of the classes of assessees :—

——	1945-46.	1946-47.	1947-48.	1948-49.	1949-50.	1950-51.	1951-52.	1952-53.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Individual	421	486	525	475	515	455	545	535
H. U. F.	946	972	984	575	600	630	745	647
Association of persons, firms and companies.	55	75	80	99	115	101	158	171

The following are the position of the demands :—

—	1945-46.	1946-47.	1947-48.	1948-49.	1949-50.	1950-51.	1951-52.	1952-53.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Individual ..	60,535	55,941	59,433	1,03,421	2,55,742	2,15,723	1,25,421	95,164
H. U. F.	8,97,313	7,46,525	6,42,617	6,98,557	8,45,358	9,46,489	9,13,727	6,05,644
Association of persons, firms and companies.	25,480	29,429	30,725	94,724	1,25,422	1,05,425	85,484	45,425

The Income-tax Officers of Muzaffarpur district are under the administrative control of the Assistant Commissioner of Income-tax, Northern Range, Muzaffarpur. This range has its jurisdiction for the whole of Tirhut Division. For appellate purpose, the Income-tax Officers of Muzaffarpur are under the jurisdiction of the Appellate Assistant Commissioner of Income-tax, Bihar and Orissa, with his headquarters in Patna.

COMMERCIAL TAXES.

The District Commercial Taxes Office is in charge of the Superintendent of Commercial Taxes. He has his assistants to help him. Two more circles have been created for Sitamarhi and Hajipur subdivisions in 1950 and 1953 respectively. There is an Assistant Commissioner for Commercial Taxes who has the jurisdiction over the whole of the Tirhut Division and is in supervisory capacity for the Muzaffarpur Sales Tax Office.

The Commercial Taxes Department deals with 6 items of taxes, namely, (1) Sales tax, (2) Agricultural Income-tax, (3) Entertainment tax, (4) Motor Spirit tax, (5) Electricity Duty, and (6) Passengers and Goods Transport charges. An account of these is given below.

(1) *Sales Tax.*

The Bihar Sales Tax Act came into force with effect from the 1st October, 1944. The number of dealers registered under this Act was 2,616 in 1951-52 but the number is gradually decreasing. In 1955-56, there were only 1,091 registered and 214 unregistered dealers. The collection of Sales Tax during 1949-50 to 1956-57 is as follows :—

Year.	Collections. Rs.
1949-50	19,18,620
1950-51	21,84,033
1951-52	25,21,145
1952-53	24,01,719
1953-54	24,80,251
1954-55	24,26,472
1955-56	22,47,846
1956-57	24,15,103

The collection from this source is mostly from cloth, foodgrains and *kirana* goods.

(2) *Agricultural Income-tax.*

Agricultural Income-tax Act was brought into effect in October, 1938, but the administration was transferred to the Commercial Taxes Department since 1st May 1944.

There has been a fall both in the number of assessees and in the collection in recent years. This is due to the fact that because of the Land Reforms Act, many big cultivators had distributed their lands

among the members of the family and so the number of big farmers assessable with this tax came down. The collection of agricultural income-tax from 1949-50 to 1956-57 is as follows :—

Year.				Collection.
				Rs.
1949-50	...	...	...	3,52,910
1950-51	...	...	...	3,81,947
1951-52	...	...	...	3,28,964
1952-53	...	...	...	3,29,107
1953-54	...	...	...	2,42,675
1954-55	...	...	...	2,62,443
1955-56	...	...	...	1,25,112
1956-57	...	...	...	97,268

The rise in the collection figure for 1950-51 was due to the realisation of arrears in certain cases filed in the previous years. Some of the assessees took steps to declare themselves separate from each other and there was a consequent decrease in the collection.

(3) *Entertainment Tax.*

Since 1st April, 1948 the administration of the Bihar Entertainment Tax Act, 1937, has been entrusted to the Commercial Taxes Department. The collection figures from 1949-50 to 1956-57 are as follows :—

Year.				Collection.
				Rs.
1949-50	...	...	...	1,85,294
1950-51	...	...	...	2,05,450
1951-52	...	...	...	1,45,054
1952-53	...	...	...	2,13,932
1953-54	...	...	...	2,13,405
1954-55	...	...	...	2,24,179
1955-56	...	...	...	2,28,121
1956-57	...	...	...	2.57.616

(4) *Motor Spirit Tax.*

The administration of the Bihar Motor Spirit Tax came to the Department of Commercial Taxes on the 1st April, 1949. The number of dealers and the collections have been on the increase. In 1951-52, there were 16 dealers under this Act but in 1956-57, there were 25. The total collections from 1949-50 to 1956-57 are as follows :—

Year.				Collection.
				Rs.
1949-50	...	...	...	90,701
1950-51	...	...	..	95,764
1951-52	...	...	...	1,03,096

Year.				Collection.
				Rs.
1952-53	...	...	...	1,14,013
1953-54	...	...	...	1,98,576
1954-55	...	...	...	2,28,506
1955-56	...	...	...	2,34,298
1956-57	...	...	...	2,56,546

(5) *Electricity Duty.*

The Bihar Electricity Duty Act came into force on the 1st October, 1948. The collection figures from 1949-50 to 1956-57 are as follows :—

Year.				Collection.
				Rs.
1949-50	...	...	...	28,372
1950-51	...	...	...	36,227
1951-52	...	...	...	36,773
1952-53	...	...	...	35,292
1953-54	...	...	...	46,668
1954-55	...	...	...	57,430
1955-56	...	...	...	58,199
1956-57	...	...	...	74,926

There has been an expansion of the electric system and this is the reason why there has been a gradual increase in the collections.

(6) *Passengers and Goods Transport Act.*

The Bihar Passengers and Goods Transport Act came into force from the 1st April, 1950. The total collections from 1950-51 to 1956-57 are as follows :—

Year.				Collection.
				Rs.
1950-51	...	...	...	4,274
1951-52	...	...	...	7.574
1952-53	...	...	...	24,732
1953-54	...	...	...	58,435
1954-55	...	...	...	55,576
1955-56	...	...	...	54,365
1956-57	...	...	...	57,846

The increase in the collections is due to the increase in the number of buses, taxis and trucks within the district.

REGISTRATION.

There are 15 Registration Offices under Act XVI of 1908. At Muzaffarpur the District Sub-Registrar deals with documents presented for registration there and assists the District Magistrate, who is

ex-officio Registrar, in supervising the work of the rural Sub-Registrars who are in charge of other registration offices. The statement below shows the number of documents registered and receipt and expenditure at each office in 1956 :—

Name of office.		Number of documents registered.	Receipt.	Expenditure.
			Rs.	Rs.
Muzaffarpur	...	17,482	2,01,291	35,808
Sitamarbi	...	6,323	34,762	10,766
Parihar	...	6,063	25,110	8,199
Sheohar	...	4,622	26,598	7,638
Belsand	...	6.642	37,936	11,748
Hajipur	...	5,994	43,023	10,882
Mahnar	...	5,368	34,492	9,672
Lalganj	...	5,569	32,936	11,152
Mahua	...	10,341	58,323	14,845
Paru	...	10,088	54,532	14,920
Pupri	...	6,866	31,203	12,024
Katra	...	5,945	28.916	10,387
Shakra	...	5,573	27,450	9,598
Bhulani	...	4,004	19,663	7,999
Barhawara Dheng	...	3.414	20,919	7,443
Total	...	1,04,314	6,77,149	1,83,081

The statistics of the number of deeds registered, receipts and expenditure and the trends in the different quinquennium from 1907 to 1956 are given at pages 214—16.

The average number of documents registered in the district during the quinquennium ending in 1956 was 5,16,350 as against 5,69,097 in the preceding five years, there being a decrease amounting to 9.3 per cent. The reason of the decrease was due to the fall in the price of foodgrains and shortage of cash in the markets. The quinquennium ending in 1951 showed an increase of 9 per cent when 5,69,097 documents were registered during the period against 5,18,672 in the preceding five years. i.e., 1942—46. The increase was partly due to rise in price of foodgrains and also to the fact that the zamindars settled their *zirat* lands with the tenants because of zamindari abolition scheme of the Government.

The average number of deeds registered during the quinquennium 1912—16 was 58,994 as against 57,330 in the preceding five years, i.e., during the quinquennium 1907—11, the increase amounting to 2.9 per cent. The average number of deeds registered annually during the

quinquennium 1917—21 was 75,746 as against 58,994 in the preceding five years, there being an increase amounting to 28.3 per cent. The average number of deeds registered annually during the quinquennium 1932—36 was 69,821 as against 81,593 in the preceding five years, there being a decrease amounting to 14.4 per cent. The annual average number of deeds registered during the quinquennium 1937—41 was 80,124 as against 69,821 in preceding five years, there being an increase amounting to 14.7 per cent. In the quinquennium 1942—46 there was an increase of 29.4 per cent when average number of 1,03,734 deeds were registered annually. The average number of deeds registered during the quinquennium 1947—51 was 1,13,819 as against 1,03,734 in the preceding five years, there being an increase amounting to 9.7 per cent while the average number of deeds registered during the quinquennium 1952—56 was 1,03,270 as against 1,13,819 in the preceding five years, there being a decrease amounting to 9.3 per cent.

Thus it is noticed that on the average the incidence of registration of the deeds has gradually increased excepting the quinquenniums 1922—26, 1932—36 and 1952—56 when the trend had been reversed by 1, 14.4 and 9.3 per cent respectively.

The average number of deeds registered annually during the quinquennium 1947 to 1951 was 1,13,819 as against 57,330 in quinquennium 1907 to 1911, the increase being 90.8 per cent. The quinquennium 1952—56 saw a decrease of 9.3 per cent when average number of deeds registered annually was 1,03,270 as against 1,13,819 in the preceding five years. Thus the registration of the deeds has increased by 80 to 85 per cent in these days. Such increase is more due to gradual rise in the price of foodgrains. It can also be said that the rise in the number of registration is due to the fact that the creditors have lost faith in debtors and they do not like to advance any money without getting some deeds like sale, mortgage bond, etc., registered in their favour. A statement of the price of lands as calculated from the deeds is given in Appendix X.

The statement below shows the number of documents registered with the receipt and expenditure from the year 1907 to 1956 :—

Year.		Number of deeds registered.	Total receipt.	Total expenditure.
			Rs.	Rs.
1907	..	56,830	61,283	26,604
1908	...	56,863	63,436	30,385
1909	...	70,937	75,740	29,849
1910	...	48,824	57,541	27,400
1911	...	53,197	63,021	28,758
1912	...	51,256	61,367	28,201
1913	...	55,244	65,875	29,601

Year.		Number of deeds registered.	Total receipt.	Total expenditure.
			Rs.	Rs.
1914	...	61,970	74,819	33,179
1915	...	69,343	81,032	36,450
1916	...	57,158	72,141	33,736
1917	...	63,274	79,887	32,775
1918	...	62,969	72,449	34,272
1919	...	92,508	1,10,279	41,100
1920	...	80,922	1,01,035	46,218
1921	...	79,057	1,03,203	53,146
1922	...	65,145	1,23,771	49,421
1923	...	78,040	1,66,202	56,838
1924	...	73,117	1,59,087	56,538
1925	...	82,262	1,76,400	61,134
1926	...	76,055	1,75,303	65,365
1927	...	85,704	2,01,233	68,202
1928	...	85,141	2,05,878	64,929
1929	...	80,786	1,92,637	66,244
1930	...	80,749	1,86,838	73,302
1931	...	75,588	1,57,135	69,420
1932	...	75,078	1,50,996	60,443
1933	...	71,647	1,50,652	60,253
1934	...	60,132	1,38,978	62,323
1935	...	67,079	1,59,958	62,130
1936	...	75,173	1,65,758	65,808
1937	...	78,418	1,70,015	68,318
1938	...	74,380	1,61,485	70,815
1939	...	82,870	1,76,527	71,551
1940	...	80,098	1,73,753	78,734
1941	...	84,857	1,80,880	77,536
1942	...	88,804	1,97,907	75,419
1943	...	1,31,139	3,71,982	97,149
1944	...	1,06,121	4,13,122	99,977
1945	...	99,350	4,24,317	1,18,063
1946	...	93,258	4,38,022	1,40,461
1947	...	1,11,442	5,62,135	1,43,881
1948	...	1,08,839	5,95,628	1,61,537
1949	..	1,04,875	7,80,974	1,76,543
1950	...	1,21,824	8,61,944	1,93,607
1951	...	1,22,117	8,28,493	2,17,668
1952	...	1,04,088	7,27,820	1,92,294
1953	...	1,13,704	7,73,341	2,03,704
1954	...	97,768	6,44,701	1,97,725
1955	...	96,476	6,15,444	1,84,269
1956	...	1,04,314	6,77,149	1,83,081

The statement below shows the average number of deeds registered with percentage of increase and decrease of each quinquennium from 1907 to 1956 :—

Year.	Average number of deeds registered.	Percentage of increase.	Percentage of decrease.
1907—1911	57,330	2·9	..
1912—1916	58,994		
1912—1916	58,994	28·3	..
1917—1921 .. .	75,746		
1917—1921	75,746	..	1
1922—1926	74,923		
1922—1926	74,923	8·9	..
1927—1931	81,593		
1927—1931	81,593	..	14·4
1932—1936	69,821		
1932—1936	69,821	14·7	..
1937—1941	80,124		
1937—1941	80,124	29·4	..
1942—1946	1,03,734		
1942—1946	1,03,734	9·7	..
1947—1951	1,13,819		
1947—1951	1,13,819	..	9·3
1952—1956	1,03,270		
1907—1912	57,330	90·8	..
1947—1951	1,13,819		
1907—1912	57,330	81	..
1952—1956	1,03,270		

EXCISE.

The Excise administration of the district is controlled by the District Magistrate who is helped in this matter by a Superintendent of Excise stationed at Muzaffarpur. The Superintendent of Excise is also under the administrative control of the Deputy Commissioner, Excise, for this range and the Commissioner of Excise whose head-quarters is in Patna. For the purposes of administration, supervision and control over the revenue derived from Excise Department, the district is divided in 12 circles, each of which is under the charge of an Excise Sub-Inspector. There are three liquor warehouses at Sadar, Hajipur and Sitamarhi subdivisions under separate Excise Sub-Inspectors. At each of the subdivisions, there is an Inspector of Excise who exercises control over the Circle Sub-Inspectors. The Inspector is incharge of the warehouses as well.

A special staff is posted at the borders of Nepal with a view to check the smuggling of Nepal *ganja*. There is also a separate special force at Muzaffarpur Railway Station to detect the smuggling of Nepal *ganja*.

The sources of excise revenue in a district are country-spirit, imported liquor (foreign liquor), toddy (*tari*), *ganja*, opium, *bhang*, commercial spirit and other miscellaneous excise goods. The statistics of the revenue from 1945-46 to 1956-57 have been quoted separately.

Country-spirit.

At first, country-spirit shops used to be settled on outstill system. This was changed in 1913-14 to distillery system. Under this system, liquor warehouses were established at all subdivisional headquarters to store, blend, reduce, and issue liquor to the shops of the district. In 1950-51, the system of settling country-spirit shops on auction was changed to sliding scale system to eliminate speculation.

The revenue figures will show that there was a rise in the figure till 1949-50. This rise was due to the gradual increase in duty and license fees. Since 1950-51, the revenue shows a tendency to decline due to the diminution of the purchasing power of the consumers.

Imported liquor.

The consumption of imported liquor is usually confined to the urban areas. The high price of the imported liquor has confined its consumption to the richer class only.

The statistics quoted separately will show that there was a rise in the revenue from this head up to 1949-50. From 1950-51 onwards, there was a decline. The revenue of 1951-52 recorded an abnormal fall. The figures in the subsequent years do not show any remarkable rise and fall in the revenue. The purchasing power of the richer class has obviously declined.

Toddy (Tari).

The revenue from *tari* was previously derived from license fees for shops settled on auction only. In 1931-32, the tree-tax system was introduced in the district.

The revenue derived from this head reached its peak in 1950-51 when Rs. 20,82,615 was derived from this head alone. There has been a decline in revenue since 1951-52. In 1956-57, the revenue was Rs. 17,95,150. The decline would indicate that there was a decline in the purchasing power of the common man.

Ganja.

The revenue from *ganja* is derived from duty and license fees. The sliding scale of license fees was introduced in 1950-51. The duty on *ganja* has steadily been raised to minimise its consumption without the revenue being affected.

There has been a marked decrease in revenue under this head for several years prior to 1956-57.

Opium.

The retail price of opium has been consistently increased to bring down the consumption as far as possible. In 1951-52, a system of permit was introduced to further cut down its consumption and to prevent fresh addicts.

Bhang.

Bhang grows wildly in the rural areas of the district. Duty and license fees have been raised from time to time to restrict its consumption without affecting the revenue. The consumption of *bhang* from the licensed shops of the district is nominal.

Commercial spirit.

Revenue from this source mainly comes from license fees of denatured spirit including medicated wines. The statistics of revenue derived under different heads from 1945-46 to 1956-57 are as follows :—

Year.	Country-spirit.	Imported liquor.	Toddy (*Tari*).	*Ganja.*	Opium.	*Bhang.*	Commercial spirit.	Miscellaneous.	Total.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1945-46	6,38,322	9,447	15,43,140	2,65,455	54,376	1,498	3,414	13,422	25,99,074
1946-47	7.36,510	16,925	17,50,816	3,77,673	79,943	1,903	3,777	17,309	30,04,856
1947-48	7,39,137	17,941	18,06,908	3,54,861	72,468	1,771	3,660	15,515	30,12,321
1948-49	6,96,085	40,472	19,02,826	3,54,057	66,995	1,790	3,792	16,061	30,82,078
1949-50	7,73,279	66,926	19,53,424	3,17,195	64,107	2,458	3,389	21,514	32,04,292
1950-51	6,90,749	45,947	20,82,615	2,18,273	62,624	3,613	4,153	31,576	31,39,550
1951-52	6,99,417*	19.583	19,88,120	2,01,306	45,274	4,766	5,219	28.714	29,32,399
1952-53	5 66,851	23,880	19,57,696	1.24,950	38,190	5,123	12,556	19,477	27,47,723
1953-54	5,84,363	26,939	19,87.957	95,991	31,500	5,253	13,270	17,443	26,82,616
1954-55	5,08.208	23,071	18,64,801	1,05,561	36,635	5,000	13,344	9,936	25,66.552
1955-56	5,10,506	23,673	17,95,150	69,355	22,248	3,198	13,695	10,876	24,48,693
1956-57	5,22,327	23,551	18,67,746	60,940	24,801	2,321	15,954	15,519	25,38,913

*With Rs. 50,298 from power alcohol.

CENTRAL EXCISE.

For the purpose of collection of Central Excise revenue, Muzaffarpur district is divided into four Central Excise Circles each under a Superintendent, viz., Muzaffarpur I and Muzaffarpur II, Hajipur I and Hajipur II. This is a Central subject.

Muzaffarpur I Circle has jurisdiction over Sakra and Kurhani police-stations of the Sadar subdivision of Muzaffarpur district.

Muzaffarpur II Circle has jurisdiction over the whole Sitamarhi subdivision and Sadar subdivision excepting Kurhani and Sadar police-stations of Muzaffarpur district.

Hajipur I Circle has jurisdiction over the whole of Hajipur subdivision except Pateypur police-station and Mahua police-station excluding beat nos. 13 to 16.

Hajipur II Circle has jurisdiction over the whole Pateypur police-station and Mahua police-station except beat nos. 13 to 16. Muzaffarpur is also the headquarters of Assistant Collector of Central Excise, having jurisdiction over the districts of Champaran, Darbhanga, and Muzaffarpur I and II Circles.

The main excisable commodities grown or manufactured in Muzaffarpur district are tobacco, sugar, soap, and package tea. 12,830 acres were under tobacco cultivation in 1953-54. The Central Excise revenue in the district in the year 1953-54 was as follows :—

Commodities.	Production.	Revenue.
		Rs.
Tobacco	1,78,42,334 lbs.	25,95,257
Sugar	3,44,273 cwt.	29,65,860
Soap	168 cwt.	1,277
Package tea	572 lbs.	193

Since the tobacco cultivation in this district is very heavy, it was necessary to create four aides for administrative purposes. The tobacco is sold to districts in South Bihar, Uttar Pradesh, West Bengal, Central India, and Delhi State, for chewing or for manufacturing into *hookah* or *zarda* tobacco.

In 1953 there were 3 sugar factories, one soap factory, one packer of package tea and 2,978 tobacco licencees.

Tobacco is also marketed in the district, subdivisional towns and in the interior. The main *hats* where tobacco is sold for consumption within the district are Ghataro, Pojha, Etwarpur, Pakri, Madanpur, Sarai, Bhatauli, Vaishali, Madarna, Saitha, Chapatta and Pahatea.

Sugar is despatched from the factories according to the quota released by the Ministry of Food and Agriculture of the Government of India.

LAND REFORMS SECTION.

As mentioned before, the District Magistrate and Collector is in over-all charge of the Land Reforms section. He is helped by a senior officer who is usually designated as an Additional Collector. There are Land Reforms Deputy Collectors in each of the subdivisions and under the Land Reforms Deputy Collector, there are Circle Officers who are known as Anchal Adhikaris. With the abolition of the zamindari, all the intermediaries between the tenant and the Government have been done away with and this throws the entire responsibility for revenue purposes on the Collector's staff. The direct link between the tenants and the Government is established through the Karamcharis who are incharge of making collection of rent. The work of the subordinate staff requires constant vigilance particularly in this transitory period.

The Additional Collector is also the District Development Officer. He co-ordinates the work of the different departments like the Agriculture Department, Animal Husbandry Department, Public Works Department, etc. at the district level for purposes of implementing the development schemes. This part of the work under the Second Five-Year Plan has become extremely important. The District Officer usually presides over the monthly meetings of the Development Committee when all the officers meet and discuss the schemes and review the progress done. The Block Development Officers are incharge of a number of thanas for purposes of carrying out the development schemes. The Block Development Officers work under the District Magistrate through the Additional Collector.

MISCELLANEOUS DEPARTMENTS.

Besides the departments mentioned above, there are a large number of Government departments at district levels. Some of these departments are Public Works Department (Roads and Buildings, Irrigation), Public Health Engineering Department, Waterways Division, Electricity Department, Labour Department, Agriculture Department, District Employment Exchange, Animal Husbandry Department, Industries Department, Co-operative Department and District Inspector of Schools.

Muzaffarpur being also the divisional headquarters has the Range Office for some of the Government departments. Some of the Range Officers are Deputy Inspector-General of Police, Superintending Engineers (Public Works Department, Irrigation Department, Public Health Engineering Department, Electricity Department, etc.), Deputy Director of Agriculture, Assistant Commissioner, Commercial Taxes, Deputy Director, Veterinary Services, Assistant Commissioner, Labour, etc.

Some of the departments belonging to the Central Government that have the offices at Muzaffarpur are Central Excise, Income-tax, Posts and Telegraphs. Recruiting Office, Central Public Works Department.

Muzaffarpur is the Regional Headquarters of the North Eastern Railway and a number of Railway offices are located there.

CHAPTER XVI.

DIRECTORY.

Ambara Chauk.—This is a place in Paru police-station and is about four miles south-west of Vaisali. It is commonly believed to be the village home of Ambapali who was the famous Court-dancer at Vaisali.

Bairagnia.—A growing and prosperous village in Sitamarhi subdivision situated on the Nepal frontier on the east bank of Lalbakeya River. Bairagnia is a big trade centre for grain, oil-seed and timber. There are four rice mills. It has got a high school and Gurukul Ashram. Bairagnia is the clearing place for a big merchandise both to and from Nepal. It is a growing township.

Baruraj.—There is a police-station at Baruraj four miles from Motipur and 22 miles from Muzaffarpur. It is a growing township.

Batesar Asthan.—It is situated about 14 to 15 miles north-east of Hajipur on the Hajipur-Jandaha road. A fair is held on the *Basant Panchami* and *Shivaratri* day at Batesar Asthan every year. The *Shivalingam* is placed on a *bar* tree and the *mela* attracts a large number of visitors.

Bela.—A place near Sitamarhi where there were indigo factories. There used to be a *kutchery* of Darbhanga Raj at Bela. There is a middle English school.

Bela Muchpakauni.—A village and police outpost in the north-east of the Sitamarhi subdivision, situated on the frontier about a mile to the west of the Murha, a tributary of the Dhaus river. The original name of the village is said to have been only Bela. The epithet *Muchpakauni* was added on account of the bad quality of the water, as it is said that any one drinking it for some time will have his moustaches (*muchh*) turned grey.

Belsand.—Belsand is the headquarters of a thana by the same name. The population of Belsand police thana according to Census of 1951 is 1,19,377. The thana is frequently inundated.

There were important indigo concerns in this thana some decades back. There are no indigo concerns now.

Chak Ramdas.—The village of Banya (with the adjacent *tola* Chak Ramdas) is taken to be the remnants of Vaniyagama. The lands of the village contain extensive mounds, and some ten years ago two statutes of Jain *Tirthankars*, one seated, the other standing, were discovered about eight feet below the surface and 500 yards west of the village. Vaniyagama is believed to be the birth-place of Mahavira, the twenty-fourth *Tirthankar* or path-finder of the Jains. This theory is, however, not undisputed.

Charaut.—A village close to the eastern boundary of the Sitamarhi subdivision, about 8 miles north-east of Pupri. With a population of

8, 947 souls, it is one of the largest villages in the district. It contains a religious establishment subordinate to the *math* or monastery at Matihani in Nepal, the *mahanth* of which is one of the richest landowners in the district. The tradition relates that more than two centuries ago a Vaishnava, named Sri Ram Balaji went to Janakpur in Nepal from Jaipur. When returning home, he was struck by the scene and silent grandeur of the forest where the village of Matihani at present stands, and determined to spend the remainder of his days there in religious meditation. He found a holy tank from which King Janaka had taken earth for his sacrificial altars, and on its bank he erected a hut. The fame of his sanctity soon spread, and the rich and powerful flocked to do him service. The Raja of Nepal gave him four villages, a temple dedicated to Janakiji (Sita) was built soon after, and the Vaishnava assumed the title of *mahanth*. The first few incumbents were given extensive grants of land by the Raja of Nepal, and the third Jai Kishun, having received in 1761 a grant of the villages of Charant and Madhurapur in the district from the Maharaja of Darbhanga, founded a *math* at the former place.

Deokali.—A village in the Sitamarhi subdivision situated on the Belsand-Sitamarhi road, 4 miles east of Sheohar and 11 miles west of Sitamarhi. The village contains a group of temples situated in a large courtyard standing at the top of a great mound; the latter is ascended by a long flight of steps leading from a fine lake stretching for ½ mile below. This mound is called Draupadagarh, and local tradition affirms that it was the fort of Draupada of the *Mahabharata*. The principal temple, which contains a large *lingam* is called Bhubaneshwar. A fair is held here on the *Shivaratri* day.

Goraul.—This village, situated at about 20 miles north of Hajipur town on Hajipur-Muzaffarpur Railway line of North-Eastern Railway, is growing into importance due to the location of a sugar factory in 1952. A police outpost has been opened in August, 1952. The village Goraul has got a large number of middle class families

Hajipur subdivision.—The area is 786 square miles. Hajipur subdivision was formed in 1865 and is now comprised of 6 thanas, namely, Hajipur, Lalganj, Patepur, Mahua, Mahnar and Raghopur. There are two towns, Hajipur and Lalganj. Hajipur is the headquarters of the subdivision. In 1801 the population of the subdivision was 7,14,079. The population according to 1951 Census is 9,42,472. The density of the population is 1,212 to the square mile.

The subdivision is said to have been the seat of the sages or *Rishis* in ancient times. It is believed that Sri Ramchandra passed through Hajipur on his way to Mithila. Lord Buddha also passed through it. The river Gandak which flows by it is said to have come out of the cheek (Sanskrit '*gand*') of Lord Shiva and so she is called Gandak or Gandaki.

During the Muslim rule Hajipur was a noted place and there are several old mosques at many places in a dilapidated condition. Hajipur was the revenue centre under the Muslim and Mughal rule.

The subdivision is famous for mangoes, litchies and plantains.

Hajipur town.—Hajipur is the headquarters of the subdivision of the same name. It is situated on the eastern bank of the Gandak at a short distance above its confluence with the Ganga opposite Patna. Its present population according to the Census of 1951 is 25,149. It lies on the main line of the North-Eastern Railway which runs west from Katihar and is also connected by a direct branch line with Muzaffarpur town. Its position on the railway and its command of water traffic in three directions give the town a considerable commercial importance. Hajipur has been connected with Sonepur by a railway bridge on the Gandak constructed in January, 1885. The present Sonepur bridge has been found to be rather unserviceable for the heavy traffic. Another railway bridge at some distance from the present bridge is being built. Hajipur has now been connected with the next station of Sonepur (in Saran district) by a pontoon bridge.

One Haji Illyas *alias* Shamsuddin Illyas, king of Bengal, between 1345 and 1358 A. D., is reported to have founded the Hajipur town and strengthened the town with a large fort, of which the ramparts are still visible. Hajipur was the headquarters of the Governor of Bihar in the later Muslim times. At that time the town is said to have extended as far as Mahnar, 20 miles to the east and to a village called Gadai Sarai, 4 miles to the north. It figures conspicuously in the struggles between Akbar and his rebellious Afghan Governor of Bengal, being besieged and captured by the imperial troops in 1572 and again in 1574; but after the transfer of the seat of Government to Patna it lost its former importance. In 1572 the Afghan rebels seized the town, but were driven out of it by Muzaffar Khan, one of Akbar's Generals. Two years afterwards, the news came that Daud Khan, the son of Sulaiman Kirani, had assumed the title of king and destroyed the fort at Patna. A *farman* was sent from Delhi to Khan Khanan, ordering him to punish Daud and to subdue Bihar, and a number of chieftains, who had remained loyal to the Mughals, were ordered to assist him. Meanwhile Daud had taken refuse in the fort at Hajipur to which the imperial forces laid siege. On hearing this, Akbar himself set out for Patna and on his arrival, determined to reduce Hajipur. Awed by the presence of the army under Akbar, Daud sued for peace. Akbar is said to have magnanimously sent an offer to Daud to accept one of the three following means of deciding to whose dominions Bihar should be annexed. He invited Daud to put the matter to the test by a single combat or to depute a wrestler who should meet an imperial wrestler or to send a fighting elephant which should cope with an imperial animal. The idea was that whichever alternative he chose, victory should be declared to belong to the side whose combatant won. The story has it that while this parleying was going on,

Akbar took possession of the Hajipur fort by a sudden move, and at the same time attacked Patna. A force of 3,000 men was sent over and Raja Gajapati, zamindar of Hajipur, was ordered to support the troops.

The rebels were defeated. Fateh Khan Barha, the commander of the fort, was slain with many of his soidiers. Five days afterwards Daud fled to Bengal and then to Orissa, where he was defeated and finally obliged to conclude peace.

There are a very few buildings to commemorate but the names of the different *mohallas* or wards recall the days of Muslim rule. The grave of Haji Illyas himself is still pointed out to the south-east of the Gandak bridge, and is held in great veneration by both the Muhammadans and Hindus of the town. It is visited by pilgrims from all parts of the district and beyond, specially women, who, it is said obtain the fulfilment of their wishes by propitiating the saint. Close to the graveyard of Haji Illyas is the graveyard of Haji Harmman.

The remains of the old fort stand close by on an elevated land lying along the bank of the Gandak and inside the enclosure is an old mosque, the Jama Masjid, which according to an inscription over the stone-gateway, shows to have been built in 1587 by Maksus Shah. Tradition has it that over each doorway there was an inscription in a different language. The inscription in Arabic over the front doorway is now much defaced and almost illegible; one is in Hindi but in the Persian character and it contains allusions to Hindu gods. There have been a certain amount of destruction of these inscriptions. The mosque is crowned with three rounded domes, the centre one being the largest. They are built of horizontally placed rows of stones, each row forming a circle, and each circle being more contracted than the one immediately below it, until the keystone is reached which is circular. The central portion of the mosque was badly damaged during the earthquake of 1934. It was afterwards thoroughly repaired in 1944-45. There is also a *sarai* or rest house within the limits of the fort, which was built for the accommodation of late Sir Rana Jang Bahadur on the occasion of his visits from Nepal. This *sarai* encloses a Buddhist temple, a double-storied building with some carvings of various erotic " *Ashanas* " on wood. There is clear Tantrik influence on them. There is a temple of Ramchandra to the west of the town and the tradition is that Ram stayed here when on his way to Janakpur. Two sites named Ramchaura and Rambhadra are said to mark the places where he stopped on his journey northwards (*see* also Reports A. S. I., Vol. XVI, and an article " On some names of places in Bihar ", by Mr. John Christian, Calcutta Review, Jan. 1891). Every year a *mela* is held at Ramchaura during *Ramnaumi* where large number of people assemble from every corner.

Sonepur fair at Hajipur.—The famous Sonepur fair in Saran district beyond Hajipur was previously held at Hajipur and only oblations were offered to the deity at Sonepur. The fair for elephants, cattle and horses used to be held at Hathisarganj, Dighi and Anwarpur

respectively at Hajipur and the ' Mina Bazar ' was held inside the fort and at Rambhadra. There also used to be horse races and polo meets. In the year 1803 Lord Clive established a stable at Hajipur. Mr. Nox after his return from Nepal as Resident was appointed as Captain of that stud. He built a race course inside the fort. The officers on deputation to the *mela* and the indigo planters used to take part in the horse race and polo meets. After sometime the Manager of the stud built a separate race course just beneath the fort on the bank of the Gandak and furnished it with railings. A bungalow which was built by Mr. Warvel and Mr. Norton (Members of the Patna Council) for trade purposes was converted into a dance club which was a particular feature in the *mela* crowded by European Planters. At the time of Lord Wellesley and Captain Moreeraf in 1800 the horse races started being held at Pusa but the one started by the planters was not discontinued. But in 1837 the race course was submerged by the river Gandak due to a change in the course of the river and the dance club was shifted to Sonepur. Gradually the *mela* also shifted to Sonepur. But a two-day *mela* is still held at Hajipur on the place from Konharaghat to the Gandak bridge. The overflow population of Sonepur *mela* stays at Hajipur. The names of the different *mahallas* where the Sonepur *mela* is now held in Saran district on the other side of the river are those that still exist in Hajipur.

The bridge.—The foundation stone for the bridge over Gandak was laid by the then Governor of Bengal in 1885 and was inaugurated by Lord Dufferin. It is a fine specimen for the time when it was built. There will soon be another bridge near the present site. The present railway bridge cannot stand the heavy railway traffic for any long time now. The railways are putting up another bridge (1957). There is a seasonal pontoon bridge since 1957.

Hajuri Math.—It is situated on the east flank of the Gandak and many stories are associated with it. It is said that an European Engineer while arguing with a saint in that *math* met with his anger and became dumb. He was not cured even after treatment in England. He came back to the saint who cured him. The Engineer offered a bell to the *math* which is still to be found.

Temples.—There is a Nepali temple of Lord Mahadeva which was erected by a Subedar of the Maharaja of Nepal. An inn was also attached to it. There are erotic carvings showing *tantrik* influence.

At Ramchaura it is said that Lord Ram together with Laxmana and his *guru* Vishwamitra had rested on their journey and the place came to be known as Rambhadra. A fair is held every year on Ramnaumi day.

The temple of Pataleshwar is famous as it is supposed to give rain when the deity is submerged with Ganga water.

Sonechiraiya.—There is a pond at Diggi which is situated two miles north of Hajipur and a legend runs that in *Shivaratri* a certain

bird took *parshad* from Harihamath temple and while flying became thirsty and came to this pond to quench its thirst. By chance it fell into it and became of gold. Hindus believe that by the grace of Mahapravu Ballabhacharya whoever takes bath in this pond for three days earns sanctity. It has become the centre of pilgrimage in *malamas* period.

Karbala.—It was constructed 175 years ago by Shah Alam. It attracts a large crowd of Muslims throughout the year.

Tombs.—A tomb known as *Mamu Bhagana ki Kabar* was erected by Shaistha Khan, the maternal uncle of Aurangzeb. It is situated near the pond of Shivai Singh in the *mouza* of Jarwa. The tomb of Makhdoom Shah Abul Fateh Sheikh Shuttari was built in *mouza* Tangaul by Taj Khan. The tomb of Bar Khurdar Aulia Shaheb is near Hatsarganj police outpost. In *mahalla* Khatte Ruknuddin there are two tombs, one of Hafiz Barkhurdar and to the east of it is the tomb of his disciple Ruknuddin Shaheb.

The tomb of Hazrat Mohiuddin *alias* Pir Damaria Shaheb is in Minapur which is built of marble. Other tombs of Kamaluddin Shaheb and Khaja Mahiuddin Chisti, disciple of Baba Fariduddin Gunj Shakar Multani are also here. The tomb of Syed Haji, son of Syed Dost Muhammad, was built by Emperor Jahangir. The tomb of Hazrat Jalaluddin Abdul is to the east of Nepali temple. The tomb of Khaja Bhil is on *mouza* Chakbhil near Bagmati. He was also a disciple of Baba Gunj Shakar.

Hazrat Jandaha.—A village in the Hajipur subdivision, 20 miles east of Hajipur and 9 miles north of Mahnar. It is a local mart of some importance, the principal article of commerce being tobacco. The name of the place is derived from a curious legend, of which the following account is taken from an article " On some names of places in Bihar " by Mr. John Christian, *Calcutta Review*, Vol. XCII, 1891 :—

> " The revered Musalman saint, whose tomb is still pointed out at Hazrat Jandaha, and who gave the name to the place and the river that flows past it, was known as Diwan Sah Ali. It is said that one hot summer day he felt very thirsty, and asked a by-stander to fetch him some water. The man was rude enough to reply that there was no water to be had close by. At this the Shah got very angry, and in his anger called on the water to flow that way, saying ' *Biah* ' (Persian—' Come '). Immediately a river began to approach the place, cutting away intervening land and causing devastation and ruin to the villages as it advanced. This so terrified the neighbouring people that they came in a body and implored the Shah to have pity on them and cause the river to spare their lands. He then called out *Jandah* (do not drown) and the river stopped encroaching and began to flow quietly in its present channel. Thus the river was called

> Baya and the town Jandaha. This Diwan Sah Ali was himself the subject of miracle, performed on him in his infancy by his uncle, who was equally remarkable and he lived in Hajipur where his tomb is still pointed out. His name was Makhdum Shah Abdul Fatah. It is said that, on one occasion, during one of his fits of ecstasy, which lasted for long periods, he threw his nephew Shah Ali who was only six days old into the river Gandak calling on the river saint Khawaja Khizr, to educate him and take care of him. After six years, when he had recovered his mother told him what he had done and what a grievous injury he had caused to his brother and sister-in-law, who had never ceased bewailing the loss of their only child. Thereupon Makhdum Shah told her not to grieve, and going to the river said—" Khawaja Khizr, give me back my nephew, whom I committed to your care six years ago " On this, the river began to roll and out came the boy, robed and jewelled like prince. Though young, he was thoroughly conversant with all the religious laws, and afterwards became the famous Hazrat Shah Ali from whom Hazrat Jandaha got its name. "

There is a mosque situated a few steps away from the river appertaining to the 15th Century. Due to the earthquake of 1934 it has been in ruins excepting the main gate. All other structures including the main building had been destroyed. The grave which was also in dilapidated condition, has been repaired in 1952.

Jaintpur.—A village in the headquarters subdivision situated 6½ miles north-east of Paru and 16 miles west of Muzaffarpur. The village contains a large *math* of Hindu monastery, the head (*mahanth*) of which was one of the principal zamindars in Tirhut. The *mahanths* of Jaintpur are *Bairagis*, who are forbidden to marry and succession passes to the head disciple.* The nucleus of the estate was a *mukarari* of Rampur Balli granted by the zamindars of Sain, near Kanti to their *guru* Tribhuan Sain Lal Das. The *guru* speedily began to acquire other property including the extensive Tajpur *taluk* and his growing riches nearly cost him his life Tradition relates that on one occasion when he went to Sain with a large sum of money, his disciples secretly determined to make away with him and possess themselves of his wealth. One of the Sain ladies informed Lal Das of the plot that had been hatched against him. whereupon he fled towards Hajipur neither halting nor eating day and night. On approaching Hajipur, a voice called to him from the tall grass by the roadside. He paid no heed at first but the voice continued to call, and always from a direction in advance of him. At length, he enquired impatiently, " Who calls me from the grass? " Thereupon the voice complained that he had not been worshipped and fed on the previous day Lal Das, searching in

*This has been the issue in protracted litigation.

the grass found the idol of Damodarji, the family deity whom he had hitherto worshipped regularly, and took it up and conveyed it to Patna, where he founded a temple for its worship. The temple stands to this day and some villages of the former Jaintpur estate are endowed for its maintenance.

There is a high school, a District Board charitable dispensary and a veterinary hospital. There is a *mela* each year at Jaintpur known as the " Damodar Dashara Mela " which is the biggest *mela* in the Sadar subdivision. The zamindar family of Jaintpur is one of the noted Bhumihar Brahmin lines in the State noted for their patronage of art and culture in the past.

Juridih.—A name meaning the burnt village, given to a large mound in the village of Bithauli, three miles south of Bhagwanpur Railway station, situated close to the main road from Muzaffarpur to Hajipur, on the 23rd mile from the former and 12th mile from the latter place. The legend of the Juridih is that there was a fort and town of the Chero Rajas at this spot long anterior to the Muhammadan conquest : that the country around belonged to the Dosadh people; and that it was still held by them under their own low caste kings, even after the Brahmans had lived among them and taught them. Finally, an enemy appeared from the West and the Chero Chief, sallied forth to battle, leaving word with the people in the fort that if they saw his standard remain erect, they would know he was victorious, but that if they saw it fall, they would know that he was beaten and were then to set fire to the castle in order to escape falling into the hands of the enemy. The standard bearer however let his flag fall when the battle was over and the soldiers in the fort and the women, thinking their chief was dead and the battle lost, shut themselves into the castle, which was three-storied, and in despair flung themselves into the flames and died. It is stated that, after the destruction of the tower the place lapsed into thick jungle for a long time, but that later the surrounding country had been cleared by the forefathers of the present occupants. A Brahman built a small temple at the site of the *pipal* tree now standing at the north-east corner of the mound; no vestige of this temple is now to be seen. Even 100 years ago wild pigs used to frequent the mound, which is now quite bare of jungle. Excavations were carried out here in 1880-81 and the walls of the fort were laid bare and found to have a circumference of 3,000 yards Among the debris bronze statues of various deities, fragments of sculpture in blue stone, pieces of used metal ore, a calcined gold ring, fragments of votive horses in baked clay, etc., were discovered. Two of the bronze statues had inscriptions showing that they were made during the reign of Mahipala Deva. (*See* Reports of Archæological Survey of India, Vol. XVI, pp. 34 -88.)

Kanti.—Kanti is an important and progressive village about 9 miles from Muzaffarpur to the west on the road between Motihari and Muzaffarpur. It has a railway station. The Kanti Indigo

Concern has now been converted into an agricultural farm. Kanti village is situated on a *man* (water channel). The indigo *kothi* of Kanti was one of the oldest indigo concerns in North Bihar. The concern is now in the hands of a Bengali family for generations. It is an ideal picnic spot particularly in the winter and offers good shooting and fishing.

Katra.—Katra is the headquarters of Katra Thana and is situated at about 18 miles from Muzaffarpur. There is a Registration office at Katra. This place is connected with Muzaffarpur by road. It is a growing township.

Khudiram Bose memorial.—A memorial tablet has been raised almost opposite the Muzaffarpur Club at Muzaffarpur in the memory of Khudiram Bose. Khudiram Bose was born on 3rd December 1889 at village Bahubani in the district of Midnapur. As a boy he took active interest in the *Swadeshi* Movement of Bengal from 1905.

Mr. Kingsford was transferred to Muzaffarpur as the District and Sessions Judge after holding the charge of the Chief Presidency Magistrate in Calcutta in which capacity he had to convict many revolutionaries in connection with the *Swadeshi* Movement.

Khudiram Bose and Profulla Chaki, two young boys, were sent by the Revolutionary Party from Calcutta to do away with Mr. Kingsford. On 30th April, 1908 these two young boys threw bombs on the phæton which they thought was carrying Mr. Kingsford to the club. The occupants were one Mrs. Kennedy and her daughter. The bomb explosion resulted in the death of both the occupants and the syce.

Khudiram was arrested on the 1st May, 1908 at village Waini and was tried. He was sentenced to death by the Judge Mr. Carnduff. He was executed at the Muzaffarpur Jail on 11th August, 1908.

The memorial tablet was unveiled at Muzaffarpur in 1948.

Kolhua.—At Kolhua 3 miles to the north-west of Basarh there are some old relics situated on a low mound one mile to the south-east of the village of Bakhra. They consist of a stone pillar surmounted by a lion, a ruined *stupa* of solid brick, an old tank, other finds marking the site of ancient buildings. The remains correspond with the description of Vaisali by Hiuen Tsang.

The pillar is one of Asoka pillars to mark the different stages of the journey to Nepal which Asoka undertook (249 B. C.). It bears no inscription. The pillar consists of a monolith supporting a square pedestal on which is a lion carved in stone; the shaft, which is a single block of polished sandstone, now stands about 22 feet high and the remainder is below ground. At the top of the pillar there is a lion seated facing the north with his mouth open as if snarling and his tongue slightly protruding.

On the low mound close by there are some Buddhist statues, the best of which is the large image of Buddha seated and wearing a crown

and necklace. Near this pillar there are two mounds called Bhim Sen's Baskets, while the pillar itself is known as Bhim Sen's *lathi* or club. There are some other mounds in the neighbourhood and the extensive remains represent the ruins of Vaisali.

Konharaghat.—South to the Gandak bridge is an ancient place of importance where it is said, that there was a great fight between the '*Gajendra*', the chief of the elephants and '*Garh*', the chief of the crocodiles. The *Grah* had almost defeated the *Gajendra*, who when about to be killed began to call pathetically God Krishna from the core of his heart for help and ultimately God (Lord Krishna) appeared and saved the *Gajendra* from the clutches of the *Grah*. Since then the place began to be called 'Konhara' (who was defeated). Konharaghat has an easy crossing for Patna. It controls a certain amount of river traffic both in passengers, goods and livestock.

Lalganj.— A town in the Hajipur subdivision, situated on the eastern bank of the Gandak, 12 miles north-west of Hajipur town. The population in 1901 was 11,502 which fell down to about 7,000 in 1921 chiefly due to the severe outbreak of plague. The population in 1951 is 12,394. Lalganj is an important river mart, the principal exports being hides, oil-seeds, sweet potatoes, mangoes, bamboos, fuel wood, and wooden sandals. The carpenters are skilful. *Hookahs*, made of cocoanuts imported from Cochin are exported in large quantities. The "Nalki-palki" (a kind of light palanquin) is cheap but strong. The importance of saltpetre as an article of export has diminished since the Great World War of 1914—18. There were about 118 large godowns for the manufacture and storage of saltpetre out of which the remains of about ten are still found. The imports are foodgrains (chiefly rice and wheat), salt, iron and piece-goods. The bazar lies on the low land adjoining the river, but is protected from inundation by the Gandak enbankments. The shipping ghat, called Basanta, lies a mile to the south of the town, which is connected by road with Sahibganj, Muzaffarpur and Hajipur. A motor bus plies between Hajipur and Lalganj and another from Hajipur to Vaisali *via* Lalganj.

A little to the south of the town is the Singia Indigo Factory, situated close to the embankment. Singia was the site of the first English Factory in Bihar, which was established in the latter half of the 17th century for the sake of the trade in saltpetre. It is said that after the name of Shrungi Rishi, whose tomb lies about 200 yards north from the factory just on the western side of the embankment the place was named as Singia. This factory is frequently mentioned in the early records of the East India Company. There was also a settlement of the Dutch East India Company, which was similarly started for the manufacture of salpetre. In 1791 it was put up for sale by order of the Hon'ble Isac Jitzsingh, member of the Supreme Council of Eastavia and Director at Hoogly Antoine de Maffe and John George Van Ambungla, members of the Hon'ble Court of Judicature, Hoogly and

was bought by a Bengali merchant for Rs. 100. The latter resold it in 1795 to Mr. John Collis for Rs. 435. In 1831 it again changed hands passing to Mr. James Nasmyth for Rs. 750, and it was then used for the manufacture of saltpetre. The protection of this factory from flood appears to have been the motive for constructing the Gandak embankment; and so important was its preservation considered that a special Embankment Committee was formed for the purpose in 1809.

The last remains of the ancient building of the Singia Factory were destroyed during the earthquake of 1934. Swami Satyadeva Parivrajak, the renowned tourist of India, stayed in the building of the factory in 1914, soon after his return from America and laid the foundation stone of the Hindi Hitaishini Sabha and Sarda Sadan Pustakalaya in the heart of Lalganj town. This place was visited by Gandhiji on the 14th March, 1934. Gandhiji had paid an earlier visit to the town on the 16th December, 1917 and presided over the annual function of the Hindi Hitaishini Sabha in commemoration of which the Gandhi Vachnalaya is functioning in the Sarda Sadan Pustakalaya. The site of the factory has been acquired by the Government and an inspection bungalow of the Public Works Department (Embankment Section) is located there.

Lalganj Municipality owed its origin in 1869, and is thus one of the oldest municipalities in the rural area. Its area is 7½ square miles, divided in four wards and twenty-five *mahallas*. The Sarda Sadan Pustakalaya has a double-storied building with a valuable collection of old manuscripts. Near the Town Outpost No. 2 is the tomb of Udarma Pir.

Half a mile west of the town, near the one milestone on the Bettia Road lies the " Pathalka-Pokhar " where stands a Shiva temple built about two hundred years back. This tank was the main halting place up to 1885 before the advent of the Railways, for travellers and pilgrims by road and river between Nepal and Pataliputra.

Mahnar Bazar.—A village in the Hajipur subdivision situated at a distance of 20 miles from Hajipur on the bank of the river Ganga on the road from Hajipur to Mohaddinagar. The population according to the Census of 1951 is 9,214. It is an important trade centre for linseed, foodgrains, tobacco, etc.

Matala.—Four miles away from Lalganj there is a village Matala. There is a ' *mahua* ' tree which produces ' *bahera* ' fruit. The legend goes that this peculiar feature is due to a saint who asked for *mahua* and was refused on the pretext that it was ' *bahera* '. Upon which the saint cursed that henceforth it would grow only ' *bahera* '.

A site named Sati Chaura is situated in a field south-west of the *math* of Surjudas. The shrine under a *pipal* and *ashok* tree attracts a lot of visitors.

Motipur.—Motipur has a railway station on the Muzaffarpur-Narkatiaganj line of North Eastern Railway. It is connected with Muzaffarpur and Motihari by a Public Works Department road connecting the two district headquarters.

Previously there was a flourishing Indigo Factory at Motipur. With the decline of indigo industry, the concern was converted into a sugar factory. This sugar factory is one of the largest sugar factories in North Bihar. There is a high school, a middle school and a number of primary schools at Motipur. There is also a District Board Charitable Dispensary. A *hat* is held twice a week. Motipur has a population of 1,722 according to the Census of 1951, but this population fluctuates at the time of the actual crushing of sugarcane. It is now a township and is destined to develop.

Muzaffarpur town.—This town is situated on the southern bank of the Burhi Gandak and is the administrative headquarters of both Muzaffarpur district and Tirhut Division. The total population of the town in 1951 was 73,504. Muzaffarpur has good roads connecting the place with Hajipur and Sitamarhi, the two subdivisional headquarters of the district, and Darbhanga and Motihari, the two other district headquarters.

The town was founded sometime in 18th Century by one Muzaffar Khan, a farmer of Chakla Nai Pargana who appropriated for the purpose 75 bighas from the four villages of Sikandarpur in the north, Kauhauli on the east, Saidpur on the south and Saraiaganj on the west. The town has an area of about 6 square miles. The town is protected from floods by an embankment known as Daudpur embankment. Muzaffarpur is an important regional railway headquarters. It has a regional office controlling a vast area of the North Eastern Railway. The railway station is a junction and railway lines radiate from here to Sonepur, Samastipur, Narkatiaganj and onwards. The town has been growing into commercial importance and with the linking up of the North Bihar with South Bihar through the rail-*cum*-road bridge at Mokameh, Muzaffarpur is bound to become the most important town in North Bihar. Being the headquarters of the administrative division of the district, a large number of Government offices are located here. They include the offices of the Divisional Commissioner, District Magistrate, Superintending Engineers, Executive Engineers, Assistant Director of Public Health, Deputy Director of Veterinary Services, Deputy Director of Agriculture, Income-tax Assistant Commissioner, Income-tax Officers, Commercial Taxes Superintendents, Assistant Commissioner of Labour, Employment Exchange, etc. There are three first grade Colleges, namely, Langat Singh College, formerly known as the Greer Bhumihar Brahman College, Ramdayalu Singh College and Mahanth Darshan Das Mahila (Girls') College. The Tirhut College of Engineering is a new institution while the old School of Engineering still functions. A Law College has been started recently. There are also a large number of high and other

standard schools for both boys and girls. There is a municipality looking after the sanitation and water supply of the town. The Electric Supply Company has made expansion owing to the development of the town. There are cinema houses and daily markets at various parts of the town. There is a very big cloth and grain market in the town. There is a big hospital maintained by Government. The Post Office along with the Telegraph and Telephone Offices have had great expansion recently.

Muzaffarpur has all the features of being the centre for an assembling industry. There are some excellent Engineering firms, the most important being Arthur Butlers who have had an existence of a century and ten years. Muzaffarpur has a large turn-over of various types of commodities and fruits. There are clubs, libraries and other cultural institutions. The "Prabhat-Tara" School started by the Roman Catholic Mission recently has become very popular.

Nanpur.—A village near the eastern boundary of the Sitamarhi subdivision which has stories associated with it. One story is that Nanpai who was in charge of the Emperor's horse brought the favourite charger of the emperor to this place for a change of air. Nanpai saw that the country east of the Baghmati river was very fertile and founded a small zamindari after reclaiming the area. Nanpai sent back the charger without returning himself. The emperor was angry and sent men to bring Nanpai to him. Nanpai gave out that he was acquiring the property for the emperor himself. This reply satisfied the emperor who made over the whole of the *pargana* to Nanpai. The other story is that on the emperor's going to hunt in Nepal, a tiger was met which Nanpai killed single-handed with his sword. The emperor rewarded him with the *pargana* round Nanpur At Nanpur there is a big tank called *Bagh Pokhar* (tiger tank) in commemoration to this event.

Palmaul.—A village at the southern border of the headquarters subdivision, situated 11 miles south of Muzaffarpur. Markets are held twice a week, but the place is best known for the cattle market. There is an old fortress at the village.

Parihar.—A flourishing village of Sitamarhi subdivision which has an office of the Sub-Registrar and also a school.

Parsauni.—A village in the Sitamarhi subdivision, situated 9 miles south-west of Sitamarhi on the road from that place to Sheohar and 5 miles north-west of Belsand. Parsauni is the headquarters of the Parsauni Raj, which was founded in the 17th Century by a military adventurer named Pardil Singh. Later Pardil Singh was converted to Islam and became Pardil Khan. The emperor gave him the title of Raja in 1615 and the adventurer came to be known as Raja Pardil Khan, the founder of Parsauni Raj. He died in 1686 and his grave is at Saraiya, close to Belsand. One of his descendants Basawan Khan attached a large portion of the Nepal *tarai* and paid the East India Company over half a lakh of rupees as revenue for the Turki *pargana*.

During the time of his son, Ghulam Murtaza Khan, the boundary between Nepal and British India was demarcated resulting in a loss to him of 1,400 villages which, it was decided, lay in Nepal. It is said that compensation was offered, but refused, the Raja being content with the promise that if these villages ever came to the British territory, the claims of the descendants would be considered.

Patepur Asthan.—The monastery was founded by Swami Jagarnath Das who was widely known for his practice of asceticism in 1128 Fasli. A grant of an extensive landed property was made to him by the then Emperor named Abdul Sah in 1138 Fasli. It is one of the big *mahanthships* in the district of Muzaffarpur. It maintains a Sanskrit *Pathsala* where students are given free board and lodge and also maintains an impressive *Thakurbari* (temple).

Rajpara.—A village in Sitamarhi subdivision which has remnants of an old fort. Another old site is Barahi *math*.

Sadar subdivision.—The area is 1,222 square miles. Its population in 1951 Census was 13,77,181. There are 10 thanas, namely, Town, Sadar, Kanti, Kurhani, Sakra, Minapur, Katra, Baruraj, Sahebganj and Paru. The density of the population now is 1,127 per square mile. The important town in Sadar subdivision is Muzaffarpur which is also the district headquarters. Motipur at a distance of 18 miles with a sugar mill is steadily growing into a township. With the development of communication and trade almost all the headquarters of the thanas are growing into small townships.

Sahebganj.—Situated at a distance of about 25 miles west of Muzaffarpur, Sahebganj is one of the important villages of the Sadar Subdivision. It has a thana which is the smallest in the Sadar Subdivision with a population of 67,346. Sahebganj police-station is on the border of Saran district, the natural boundary being the river Gandak. Sahebganj is connected from Muzaffarpur by road on two sides, i.e., *via* Deoria and *via* Motipur. Sahebganj has a small market place and *hats*.

Sarkhandi Bhita.—This village 2 miles to the east of the Murha river, has a considerable trade in grain, cloth and salt particularly with Nepal. This is one of the largest villages in the district, having a population of 7,035.

Shakra.—It is situated at a distance of 18 miles from Muzaffarpur town. Shakra has a railway station, a police-station, a sub-registry office, a high school, a middle school and a number of primary schools.

Sitamarhi subdivision.—The area is 1,007 square miles. Its population was 9,86,582 in 1901 against 9,24,396 in 1891. In spite of the fact that it is particularly liable to suffer from famine and bore the brunt of the distress in 1896-97 this is the most progressive part of the district. Its population has been growing steadily since the first

Census in 1872; it attracts settlers both from Nepal and from the south of the district. The subdivision is divided into 4 police circles, namely, Sitamarhi, Belsand, Pupri and Sheohar. It has one town, Sitamarhi, its headquarters and 996 villages. Bairagnia on a branch of the North Eastern Railway has an important market for the frontier trade with Nepal. Of the total number of inhabitants, 8,42,280 are Hindus, 1,44,250 are Muhammadans, and 52 are Christians. The density of the population is as high as 971 per square mile. The average number of villages and houses per square mile is 1 and 173 respectively and the average population of each village is 981. The population according to 1951 Census is 12,01,086.

The subdivision is divided into 4 Revenue Thanas, viz., Sitamarhi, Pupri, Sheohar and Belsand and 10 police-stations, viz., Bela, Belsand, Bairagnia, Majorganj, Pupri, Runisaidpur, Sheohar, Sursand, Sonebarsa and Sitamarhi.

Sitamarhi town.—Headquarters town of the subdivision of the same name. It is situated on the west bank of the Lakhandei river, which is spanned here by a fine brick bridge. The population according to 1951 Census is 13,267. The town is situated on a branch of the North Eastern Railway. It is also connected by road with the Nepal frontier, Darbhanga and Muzaffarpur. The town is of great commercial importance and has a large turn-over in rice, timber, oil-seeds, hides and various kinds of produce from Nepal. A large fair, celebrating the *Ramnavami*, i.e., the day of Rama's birth, is held here in Chait (March-April). It lasts for a fortnight and is attended by thousands from very great distances. Pottery, spices, brass utensils and cotton cloth form the staple articles of commerce; but the fair is especially noted for the large number of bullocks brought to it.

Sitamarhi is a sacred place in Hindu mythology as tradition relates that here Sita sprang to life out of an earthen pot, into which King Janak drove his ploughshare. The tank, called the Janki-*kund*, from which she is said to have arisen, is still pointed out, but Panaura, a village three miles to the south-west, also claims the honour. The town, however, contains no relics of any archæological interest. The temple of Janki, i.e., Sita, the daughter of Janak, is apparently modern and not more than 70 or 80 years old; it contains three stone figures with mother-of-pearl eyes which represent Rama, Sita and Lakshamana. The legend connected with the temple shows, however, that it occupies an old site. It is said that King Janak excavated a tank at the place where Sita sprang to life, and after her marriage set up the figures of Rama, Sita and Lakshmana to mark the site; this tank is the Janki *kund* just to the south of the temple. In course of time, the land lapsed into jungle, till about 500 years ago, when a Hindu ascetic, named Birbal Das, came to know the site by divine inspiration where Sita was born. He came down from Ajodhya and cleared the jungle. Here he found the images set up by Janak, and having built a temple over them, commenced the worship of Janki or Sita. The income of

the temple which is large, is derived mainly from the offerings of pilgrims, but the *mahanth*, who is responsible for its preservation, also enjoyed the revenues of an endowment, called the *taluka* Sitamarhi, which was set aside for its maintenance. In the same compound there are three other temples sacred to Hanuman, Mahadeo and Ganesh, which are quite modern; and to the south stands a mausoleum erected over the ashes of the first three *mahanths* Birbal Das and his two successors. Sitamarhi being the headquarters of the subdivision bearing that name has the subdivisional courts and other administrative and revenue offices

Subhegarh.—An old ruined fort, 18 miles to the north-west of Muzaffarpur, is situated in a bend of the Joga river, an old branch of the Baghmati. The fort is 1,300 feet long by 400 feet, and according to the local tradition, marks the site of the residence of Raja Suhel Deb. The Raja, it is said, was the last of his race and had only one daughter Suhel Devi who rejected all the suitors and at last consented to marry a man who should be able to count the myriads of palm trees in the fort. This task was accomplished by a Dusadh and the princess in order to escape the shame of being married to a man of a low caste prayed that the earth would open and swallow her up. Her prayer was heard and the earth at once opened under her.

The only remains of the sculpture in the fort consist of a broken pedestal of stone with some small figures carved on it. General Cunningham found two copper coins of Tughlak Shah at Subhegarh. There are some Muhammadan tombs near about, two of which are of Ghulam Mohiuddin and Muhammad Jaffar.

Tirhut.—The ancient name for the tract of country bounded on the north by the Himalayas, on the south by the Ganga, on the west by the river Gandak and on the east by the river Kosi. Tirhut comprised the districts of Champaran, Muzaffarpur and Darbhanga, as well as the strip of Nepal *tarai* which runs between these districts and the lower ranges of the Himalayas. The name is a corruption of Tirabhukti, or the river side land; and General Cunningham considers that the term referred to the lands lying in the valleys of the Little Gandak and Baghmati rivers. He points out that all the chief places in the country are found upon the banks of the former river, which, he says, must have been the channel of the Great Gandak until the 7th Century A. D. Mahamahopadhyaya Hara Prasad Sastri thought that the term meant a province bordering on the Ganga and that the word *bhukti* is often used in the Sena inscriptions in the sense of the province during the 10th, 11th and 12th centuries.

According to tradition, Tirhut is the land in which the three great mythical *homas* (sacrificial fires) were performed—one at the birth of Sita in or near Sitamarhi, the second at Dhanukha at the foot of the Himalayas, where the great celestial bow of Hara was broken by Rama, and the third at Janakpur, the capital of Mithila (now in Nepal) at the marriage of Sita.

Under the Mughal Empire, Tirhut formed an important *sarkar* or division of the *subah* or province of Bihar. It comprised a very large tract of country which included the present districts of Muzaffarpur and Darbhanga, nearly the whole of Bhagalpur and Saharsa, and a small portion of Monghyr. In the early days of British administration, *sarkar* Tirhut was a very large district, covering the present districts of Muzaffarpur and Darbhanga, a portion of Bhagalpur, *pargana* Kashmar in the south-east corner of Saran, and *pargana* Bhadi Bhusari in the south-western corner of Monghyr. The headquarters of the district remained at Muzaffarpur, but various transfers of territory were made until the area of Tirhut coincided with that of Muzaffarpur and Darbhanga. It was divided into two in 1875, the eastern and the larger portion being formed into the district of Darbhanga, and the western portion being constituted into the district of Muzaffarpur.

Turki.—This village is situated at a distance of 8 miles from Muzaffarpur town. Turki is growing into importance as a Basic College which is the main centre of training in the art of Basic education, a training college for the teachers and a centre for training social workers, have been set up. It is both connected by rail and road with Muzaffarpur and Hajipur.

Vaisali (Modern Basarh).—Vaisali or modern Basarh is a village in the north-west corner of the Hajipur subdivision, situated 20 miles north-west of Hajipur. It has been identified as the birth-place of Mahabir, the 24th *Tirthankar* of Jainism (traditional dates 599-527 B. C.). It was also the capital of the powerful confederacy of the Lichchhavis. It was thrice visited by Buddha. It was the scene of the second great Buddhist Council and it long remained a stronghold of Buddhism. It was at Vaisali that Buddha permitted the order of nuns against his own wish at the instance of Anand and his foster-mother Maha Prajapati who became the first Buddhist nun at Vaisali.

Although Vaisali came into prominence in 6th Century B. C., it is said to have been founded by King Vishala of the solar dynasty. The splendour of the city is described in the *Ramayan* of Valmiki according to which Rama on his way to Janakpur passed one night here as the guest of the King of Vaisali. Later on, Vaisali turned into a Republic and became a stronghold of democratic and progressive ideas under the rule of the Lichchhavis. It had trade relations with distant countries. It became a part of the Maurya Empire (4th-3rd centuries B. C.). The coins of Kadphises II, Kanishka and Huvishka (1st-2nd centuries A. D.) found here prove that the Kushans had ruled over it for a considerable period. Vaisali rose again in the 4th century A. D. It played an important part in the foundation and consolidation of the Gupta Empire. Many coins and seals of that period have been found here. It attracted the notice of Islam as well and contains a mausoleum of a famous Muslim Saint Shah Qazin (1435-1495 A. D.), who came from Maner (Patna district) and devoted his life to the preaching of Islam in North Bihar.

Not much is left to recall its ancient greatness. The principal remains consist of a huge mound known locally as the fort (*garh*) of Raja Visal : the close correspondence of the name of this eponymous local chieftain with the name of the city is obvious. The following description of the remains, as they existed in 1871 is slightly condensed from General Cunningham's account :—

"The remains consist of a large deserted fort and a ruined brick *stupa*. The fort is a large brick-covered mound of earth with round towers at the four corners; and the whole is surrounded by a ditch. The ruined ramparts along the edge, and four towers at the corners, are somewhat higher than the mass of the mound, which has a general elevation from 6 to 8 feet above the country. The main entrance was in the middle of the south face where there still exists a broad embankment across the ditch as well as a passage through the rampart. In the northern face there was probably only a postern gate, as there is no passage through the rampart and no trace of any embankment across the ditch, excepting the fact that the only dry part of the ditch is on this face. The only building within the fort is a small brick temple of modern date.

"Outside the south-west angle of the fort, and about 1,000 feet distant, there is a ruined mound of solid brickwork, 23 feet 8 inches in height above the fields. The whole of the top has been levelled for the reception of Musalman tombs of which the largest, ascribed to Mir Abdal, is said to be 500 years old. On the south edge of the mound there is a magnificient wide-spreading banyan tree, supported on numerous trunks, which shades the whole of the tombs. On the same side also a flight of steps leads down to the village Basarh. This brick mound is the ruin of one of the *stupas* or solid towers of Vaisali, of which so many are described by Hiuen Tsang. Both within and without and all round the town of Vaisali, says he, 'the sacred monuments are so many that it would be difficult to enumerate them'. It is much to be regretted that the presence of the Musalman tombs on the top of this ancient *stupa* effectually precludes any attempt at excavation. An annual fair is held at the Basarh *stupa* in the month of Chait, when many thousands of people assemble at the shrine of Mir Abdal. As the occurrence of this fair is regulated by the solar reckoning of the Hindus and not by the lunar year of the Muhammadans, I conclude that the festival was established long before the time of the Musalman saint. I would, therefore, as the fair is held beside the ruined *stupa*, connect the festival with some celebrations in the honour of Buddha, or one of his disciples."

Nineteen years later General Cunningham found that the walls had entirely disappeared, but the ramparts and ditches still remained. The fort now forms an elevated piece of land of oblong shape, almost one mile in circumference. The longest sides run from north to south, about 1,700 feet long, and the shorter ones from east to west, about 800 feet in length. It is surrounded by a ditch 125 feet broad, where water still exists in some places, but the land is almost entirely under cultivation. The height of the plateau from the bottom of the ditch is 15 feet on the average. The surface of the fort is undulating, with a well-marked deep depression a little north of the centre, and with two smaller depressions running through the centre, from north to south and from east to west. To the south, an embankment still exists, evidently the remains of the high road leading to the fort. There are many holes in the surface made by the villagers digging for bricks or seeking treasure but there are no surface indications of any structural remains. In the south-western corner stands a modern temple containing some curious brass images, and the ground round it has been fenced off and is cultivated by the priests. A modern temple west of the village near the tank called the Bawan Pokhar, contains some mediæval statues said to have been dug out of the tank. In the neighbourhood are several fine sheets of water and a large number of small tanks. Local tradition states that there were 52 tanks, and that Basarh was the residence of the Puranic Bali Raja. Vishnu appeared here in his fourth incarnation in the shape of a dwarf, and asked Bali Raja for as much ground as he could cover with his three feet. Two feet covered the heaven and earth, and the third he placed on the head of Bali Raja and sent him to hell as punishment for his overweening pride. The natives of the place say that the ' Bawan Pokhar ' or 52 tanks mark the scene of this occurrence. General Cunningham however points out that the abundance of tanks is a common feature of Buddhist sites.

Excavations were carried out in the fort by Doctor Bloch, Archæological Surveyor, Bengal Circle, in 1904 and remains of masonry buildings were found in every place explored. Some of them were just below the surface and did not go further than a few feet. These buildings cannot have been very old, and afford some evidence of the place having been inhabited only a few centuries ago. Others which were found at a depth of about 5 feet reaching generally as far as 9 or 10 feet down, probably represent the remains of the ruined buildings seen by Hiuen Tsang in the 7th Century A. D. There is evidence that they go back to at least 300 A. D., but they may have been still older. The foundations of the old buildings only have remained, and they show that as a rule the rooms and chambers were remarkably small. The floors were of concrete with a layer of bricks; the houses themselves were tiled; and the top of the roof must have been crowned by small pinnacles. All the buildings discovered were secular and no remains of temples were found. Ashes and small fragments of burnt wood were found on all sides and there is every probability that the

place was sacked and plundered. The most interesting discovery was a large quantity of inscribed seals, over 700 in number. Nearly all were discovered in a room which was in all probability used for the deposit of refuse, as they were found mixed up with broken pottery, bones, burnt rice, ashes and other rubbish. These seals were originally attached to letters or other literary documents which must have decayed quickly in the damp soil. They belonged partly to officials, partly to private persons, generally bankers and merchants many of whom belonged to mercantile guilds; and they were entirely secular with the exception of one bearing the mark of a *linga* with a *trisul* on each side, which is clearly the seal of the temple. Probably this seal bears the oldest figure of a *linga* which has as yet been found in India. Like the rest of the seals, it dates back to the 4th or 5th Century A. D. It is a matter of some local interest that the ancient name of Tirhut, Tirabhukti, occurs on two of the seals.

The second series of excavations was started in 1912 by Dr. Spooner, Superintendent of Archæological Survey in the Eastern Circle. He went down to a depth of 16 to 18 feet. Several large square bricks of an antiquity and a large number of seals and pieces of pottery were, however, discovered. A few of the seals are ascribable to about the 3rd Century B. C. Seals and a few coins and some well-preserved terracottas were indeed the only important finds of the season's work. In spite of the best efforts of Cunningham, Dr. Bloch and Dr. Spooner the enclosing walls of the fortress and also of the Royal palace of ancient Vaisali yet remain to be excavated. The finds made by Dr. Spooner are kept in the Patna Museum.

In 1945 Sri J. C. Mathur, I.C.S., Subdivisional Officer, Hajipur took the initiative and with the help of others founded the Vaisali Sangh with a view to bring into prominence the ruins of Vaisali and to redeem it from the neglect. Every year on the birth-day of Mahabir (i.e., *Chait Sudi* 13) the Vaisali festival is held under the auspices of the Vaisali Sangh. The Sangh also intended to establish the Vaisali Institute of Post-Graduate Studies and Research in Prakrit and Jainology, to provide facilities for higher studies and original researches in Prakrit and Jain learning in all their branches and to prepare and publish critical editions and translations of the hitherto unpublished Prakrit and Jain literature.* The Superintendent, Archæological Department, Bihar Circle, had made excavations in 1950 which led to important finds. Sri S. A. Shere, Curator of Patna Museum, writes as follows.—

" The vessels found at Vaisali are mostly red wares with red slip. Fragments having leaf design showing admixture of mica flakes and decorated with " rain drop " pattern are interesting specimens of this collection. The use of mica in earthenwares to import lustrous surface may be

*The State has since sponsored an Institute for these objects at Vaisali.

common in those days as articles found in Pataliputra and Patna also show the same characteristic. Some of the fragments have been found to be ornamented and decorated in high relief. There are specimens which are decorated with incised lines and geometrical design. There are also some yellow, green, brown, grey and black polished potsherds such as the beautiful fragment of glazed dish the upper surface of which shows pattern of radiating rays with border. Its colour is yellow ground with green and brown lines having plain light yellow colour for the outer surface. There are fragments which have blue, black gale. Some of the grave wares have black slip and are highly polished. There are dishes which have a painted base and rim ". (*Homage to Vaisali*, p. 82.)

While repairing the road at Kharauna Pokhar an ancient concrete road has been exposed to view and it was probably the royal road connecting Vanijgram and the Garh.

Vaisali Museum has been built by the Vaisali Sangh at Chak Ramdas There is a valuable collection of the local finds made through community efforts.

MELAS*

Birahama.—Held during the rains on *Nagpanchmi* day to commemorate the worship of snakes. There is a large congregation of men. A large sale of pigs is held The income of the *mela* is appropriated by a high school in the same village

Bisahar.—This *mela* is held at Bharopur on *Sravan Sudi Panchmi* day in honour of the worship of snakes. It is said that a number of wizards assemble at the *mela* and chant hymns. The congregation consists mostly of women

Charaut.—Occurs twice a year, on the occasion of *Basant Panchmi* day of Falgun and in the month of Baisakh or April.

Hardi.--Held on *Basant Panchmi* day and continues for about two or three weeks and is noted for a cattle fair.

Jaintpur.—A big cattle fair on *Dashahara* day is held at Jaintpur and continues for about a fortnight. It is noted for the sale of cattle and consumers goods. The *mela* is well attended.

Jajuar.—There is nothing particular about this *mela*, held during the *Dashahara* festival excepting that there is a huge congregation of people and good business of ordinary goods is done.

Kamtaul Jagdish.—This *mela* is held during the *Nagpanchmi* day in the month of Sravan. It is meant for the worship of snakes and the

*If not specifically mentioned the mela has taken its name from the place where it is held.

very large congregation of people during the *mela* indicates that serpent worship has still a very big hold on the mind of the people.

Konharaghat.—People attending this *mela* on *Kartik Purnima* have a dip into the holy water of the river Gandak. The local tradition mentions that there was a duel fight between an elephant and a crocodile which has been referred to under Konharaghat separately. The *mela* lasts only for two days and has a religious sanctity.

Khajuri.—There is a big turn-over in cattle in this *mela* in the month of January.

Kokilwarah.—This *mela* is held on *Phalgun Shivaratri* and has a big turn-over in cattle.

Mahua.—Cattle and wooden furniture are largely sold in this *mela* during *Dashahara* festival.

Panapur.—Thousands of persons visit this *mela* lasting a week, in the month of October. The principal feature of it is the sacrifice of a large number of he-goats before the Goddess Durga (Vashmi Devi). After sacrifice the goats are consigned to flames. It is understood that even 18,000 goats had been sacrificed in 1952.

Parsauni.—This is also a cattle fair and starts in the wake of Sheohar *mela*.

Ramchaura.—This *mela* is held every year on *Ramnavami* day. The local tradition is that Shri Ramchandra had halted here for a bath on his way to Janakpur. There are some marks on stone which are said to be his foot-prints.

Rautinia.—It occurs twice a year in October and in April. This *mela* in Kanti police-station is particularly noted for the sale and purchase of bullocks.

Rewah.—Held at village Rewa, police-station Paru, during *Kartic Purnima* and all the eclipses. It is essentially a religious *mela* and is attended by a large assembly of men.

Sheohar.—It is a cattle *mela* lasting for ten days which is held every year in the month of Baisakh. There is no religious background.

Sitamarhi Bibah Panchmi.—Held at Sitamarhi and starts on the *Bibah Panchmi* day of Aghan and continues for ten days. It is a fair mainly for sale and purchase of elephants, horses, bullocks and miscellaneous articles.

Sitamarhi Ramnavami.—This is a very old *mela* and there is a great turn-over in cattle. It is said that this is the largest cattle fair in North Bihar. It starts on the *Chait Ramnavami* day and lasts for a fortnight. Besides cattle, timber and miscellaneous articles are also sold here. This is one of the biggest *melas* in the district and attracts a very large number of persons.

Susta.—Also known as Susta *Bibah Panchmi mela*. It is held during *Aghan Bibah Panchmi* day. An important cattle fair is held in this *mela*.

Turki.—This *mela* is held at village Turki, police-station Kurhani. This is commonly known as Sri Mahadeva *mela*. It is held in early May and although religious in character it is marked by a large sale of cattle.

(Some purely cattle fairs are also held among which Madhurapur, Sonebarsa, Barharwa, Babhangama, Bagaha and Manikchak *melas* are more important.)

ENCLOSURE I.

Extract from the chapter on 'Rents, Wages and Prices' of the Muzaffarpur District Gazetteer, 1907.

PRODUCE RENTS.

Rents are generally paid in cash, but they are paid in kind for a small percentage of the area under cultivation Non-occupancy *ryots* and under-*ryots* pay produce rents for 19 and 61 per cent, respectively of their holdings, but the area held by these classes of tenants is comparatively insignificant; and such rents are paid for only 7 per cent of the land held by occupancy and settled *ryots*, which accounts for no less than 82 per cent of the holdings. Where produce rents obtain, it is because the crops are precarious owing to the land being exposed to inundation or deterioration; and mango groves which bear fruit only at intervals are also frequently held under the same system. Rents are paid in kind more largely in the south than in the north of the district, and are most common in the Hajipur, Mahuwa and Lalganj thanas, where the area held on produce rents is 13.2, 11.6 and 7.5, respectively of the cultivated land. In Hajipur a considerable area consists of Gangetic *diaras*, where the crops are liable to be washed away by a sudden rise of the river. In Mahuwa there are numerous lakes, which serve the purposes of drainage areas, and the crops grown there in dry seasons are liable to be swamped by sudden floods. In the Lalganj thana again the land to the west is exposed to inundation from the Gandak. Not only are the drainage basins more numerous in the south, but the demand for land is greater, and cultivators are therefore tempted to take up land on terms which they would decline in less congested areas. This competition for land is, in fact, the main cause of the prevalence of produce rents, as it induces cultivators to settle for land on which the crops are very precarious.

BATAI SYSTEM.

There are three ways in which produce rents are paid, viz., by the *batai*, *bhaoli* and *mankhap* systems. Under the *batai* system the actual produce, including the straw, is divided between the landlord and tenant; generally each receives half of the crop, but occasionally it is divided in the proportion of $\frac{7}{16}$ths to the *ryot* and $\frac{9}{16}$ths to the landlord, or $\frac{5}{12}$ths to the *ryot* and $\frac{6}{12}$ths to the landlord. The crop is either divided on the field, in which case the practice is known as *bojh-batai*, because the landlord and tenant each get a fixed share of the sheaves (*bojha*), or the division of the produce takes place on the threshing floor and is called *agor-batai*, because the crop has to be carefully watched (*agorna*) to prevent pilfering.

BHAOLI SYSTEM.

Under the *bhaoli* system the crop is appraised in the field before it is reaped, and the value of the landlord's share is paid by the tenant either

in grain or cash. This system is not so common as the *batai*, which is the most prevalent in the district, though appraisement is generally more advantageous to the landlord, both because there is no pilfering and because he can bring pressure to bear on the cultivator to secure a favourable appraisement.

MANKHAP SYSTEM.

The *mankhap* system of rent payment is a peculiar system, found mainly on the estates of the Raja of Sheohar in the thana of that name and on the estate of the Sursand Ranis in the Pupri thana: it is especially common in the Sheohar thana, where as much as 6.6 per cent of the holdings pay produce rents. Where it prevails, the tenant binds himself to pay annually a fixed amount of grain ranging in the case of rice from 8 to 12 maunds per acre, whatever the outturn may be. As a rule, the *mankhap* is paid on certain specified plots in the holding, usually on about 3 *kathas* in the *bigha*; but in some cases the tenant pays a fixed annual amount on the total area in addition to his cash rent. This system appears to be a comparatively modern innovation, and is not found in the more highly developed parts of the district, but only in areas reclaimed during the last century. It differs from the ordinary system of payment of rent in kind, in that the demand does not adjust itself to good or bad seasons; and it is in this respect that it is so inequitable, as whether his crop is a bumper one or an utter failure, the tenant has to pay the amount agreed upon. It is not surprising therefore that it is exceedingly unpopular, and that the *ryots* regard it as equivalent to cultivating their lands free of cost for the landlord. Fortunately the evil is a very limited one, as the lands held under the system are few in number; they are situated in a part of the district where rents are low; and they consist almost entirely of paddy-fields, which generally give a good outturn.

CASH RENTS.

The average rates of rent paid by the several classes of *ryots* and under-*ryots* are as follows :— *Ryots* at fixed rates, Rs. 3-11-11; occupancy and settled *ryots*, Rs. 3-12-3; non-occupancy *ryots*, Rs. 4-9-0; and under-*ryots*, Rs. 4-5-8 per acre. The average incidence of rent per acre for *ryots* of all classes is Rs. 3-13-6.

Rents are higher in the south than in the north of the district, where the demand for land has developed at a comparatively late date. In the case of occupancy and settled *ryots*, who form the great majority of the cultivators, none of the thanas in the south, except Paro, return a rate of less than Rs. 4 an acre, while none of the thanas in the north return a rate higher than this. The rate of rent is highest in the neighbourhood of Hajipur, where poppy, tobacco, potatoes, etc., are grown on land which is never fallow and which often produces four crops in the year. Rents vary, however, not only with the character and situation of the land, but also according to the caste and position of the cultivator, and a tenant of high caste pays less than one of lower social rank.

ENHANCEMENT OF RENTS.

Compared with the neighbouring districts, Muzaffarpur does not occupy an unfavourable position as regards rent rates, in spite of the large increase which has taken place since the Permanent Settlement. Mr. Stevenson-Moore is of opinion that, speaking broadly, rent rates have increased 100 per cent in the past three-quarters of a century; and observes that though the increase of zamindari assets has been largely obtained by the reclamation of waste and the expansion of cultivation, there can be no doubt that enhancement of rent rates has been also an important factor leading to this result. Whatever the cause, whether it was the depopulation of Tirhut by the great famine of 1770, or it general inaccessibility and backwardness, the fact remains that half a century ago the rents were very light; and this fact greatly conduced to and also justified the subsequent increase. The two main methods by which enhancements have been obtained have been by partition and arbitrary increase of rent rates. Partition has been the main cause of the increase, and it is noticeable that with hardly an exception the most excessive enhancement of rent rates has taken place in the villages that have undergone partition. There is generally a keen desire on the part of proprietors of joint estates to get their shares separated by partition, and the result is the creation of a large number of petty landlords, who are unable to keep up their position, but who try to do so by squeezing as much as possible from their *ryots*. The other great cause of enhancement has been the way in which zamindars have been able to tamper with rent rates, enhancing them at their own pleasure and in a purely arbitrary way. Consequently, rent rates even where they exist, have often little or no relation to the quality of the soil.

The *ryots* of large proprietors enjoy the greatest security with regard to tenant right, and the *ryots* of small proprietors the least: while the *ryots* of large tenure-holders enjoy the most privileged rent rates and those of small tenure-holders suffer the most excessive. The large tenure-holders are generally indigo-planters, and their policy is to leave rents alone, so long as land is given for indigo; and the rate is highest in estates held by petty lease-holders or *thikadars*.

PAYMENT OF RENTS.

Rents are usually paid in four instalments, except in the case of very petty zamindars, who generally do not adhere to any fixed instalments, but realize their entire demand as soon as they can. The first instalment is due in the month of Asin or October, when the *bhadoi*, the first harvest of the agricultural year, has been reaped. This instalment (*kist*) is invariably one-fourth of the total annual rent. The second is levied in Aghan or Pus (December), when the winter rice crop is reaped, and varies from one-fourth to half of the rental according to the extent of the rice land. The next instalment is paid in Chait (April) and varies from two to six annas; and the last is in Baisakh or Jeth (May), when the *rabi* crops have been reaped and threshed; in some cases it is

one-fourth and in some one-eighth of the total rental. A portion of this last instalment is frequently realized when the harvesting of the *bhadoi* crop is begun in September.

WAGES.

Statistics of the wages given for certain selected classes of labour during the ten years 1892—1901 will be found in the Statistical Appendix*. From this statement it will be seen that, even in so short a period, there has been a general rise in the rates paid for labour. This is most marked in the case of skilled labour, which now commands a higher value than it did formerly. Among masons, carpenters and blacksmiths the wage shows an upward tendency; the silversmith charges a higher rate for his workmanship; and the shoemaker and tailor have raised their tariff. The rise is gradual, but is clearly observable; and it appears to be due to a combination of circumstances, such as an advance in the standard of comfort among the natives of the better class, the opening of new lines of railway, and the resultant communication with large centres of industry.

Outside urban areas the wages of labour generally maintain much the same level from year to year, and this is particularly the case with unskilled labour. But, even here, there has been a noticeable increase in the daily wage obtained by the labourer during the last generation. Adult male labourers, who 30 years ago used to receive only 4 pice, now get 8 Gorakhpuri or *lohia* pice; women get 6 pice where formerly they were paid 3 pice; and boys are paid a daily wage of 4 to 5 pice instead of 2 pice. This class therefore has not been seriously affected by the corresponding increase in the price of food; and they are moreover, to a great extent, secure from suffering on that account, as wages in the villages are still usually paid wholly or partly in kind. A ploughman is paid 2 annas for half a day's work, but besides this, he is given for breakfast half a *kachcha* seer (5 chittacks) of some inferior grain like *marua*. *makai*, etc. In all agricultural operations prior to reaping, except ploughing, a labourer, when paid in kind, gets 4 *kachcha* seers of one of the cheap grains, such as unhusked coarse paddy, *marua*, *makai*, *khesari* and *kodo*. When paid in cash, he gets 8 Gorakhpuri or *lohia* pice, besides one-eighth of a seer of *makai* for his breakfast. When engaged in transplanting, labourers are usually fed once a day on coarse rice and pulse. Weeding is done at a period when the cultivators' circumstances are straitened, and the labourers sometimes have to accept a little less food. At the current prices of the grain in which labourers are paid either in whole or part, the average wage in cash would be 1¼ anna, except for transplanting, when it equals to 2 annas. From the time of reaping agricultural labour is everywhere paid in kind. In reaping and threshing the labourer gets one-eighth of the produce reaped. The remuneration for the person who watches crops is 5 *dhurs*, or $\frac{1}{80}$th of the gross produce. In the case of *makai*, when the cultivator adopts the unusual practice of employing some one else to watch the crop, a double wage is paid, the responsibility being so much greater

*Not quoted (P. C. R. C.)

Carpenters, blacksmiths and other members of the village community, who indirectly assist cultivation, are also paid in kind for their labour, and it is estimated that they absorb altogether 1 th of the gross produce. On the whole, it may be said that $\frac{1}{40}$th of the gross produce of all food-crops goes to defray the cost of watchmen, village artisans, etc. This system is particularly suited to an agricultural country like Muzaffarpur, as it has the advantage of being unaffected by any rise in the price of food-grains. Whatever the fluctuation in the price of these, the labourer's wage remains the same.

LABOUR SUPPLY.

It is estimated that the supply of labour exceeds the demand by 68 per cent, and that there is labour for about one-third of the female labouring population after the male population has been satisfied. In these circumstances, the continuance of the indigo industry has a very important bearing upon the labour problem, as will be seen from the facts and figures quoted by the Settlement Officer. He showed by calculation that indigo requires four and a half times as much labour as other crops, an acre under indigo giving employment to 172 labourers, while an acre under ordinary cultivation would only give employment to 39 persons; and he stated, on the authority of the Secretary of the Association, that the concerns of the Indigo Planters' Association had indigo on 74,214 acres and employed an average of 35,000 labourers per diem throughout the year. The industry has suffered terribly since that time (1901) from the competition of the artificial dye; several factories have been closed or have reduced their cultivation; and it is stated in the final forecast of the indigo crop of 1905 that the area under cultivation in 1904 was only 35,000 acres, and that the area estimated as sown in 1905 had fallen to 25,000 acres. According to the above scale, this means that over 24,000 persons have been thrown out of employment, of whom only about 5,500 can have found employment on the cultivation which has taken the place of indigo. The decline of the industry has also had a serious effect on the wages obtained for labour; for, according to statistics prepared by the Director-General of Statistics, the number of persons employed in indigo factories increased from 1891 to 1896 and then fell, while the wages of agricultural labourers rose steadily till the latter year, and then fell from Rs. 4 to Rs. 3.

At the same time, the planters complain that far from there being an excess of labour, they suffer from a serious deficiency. Rates have gone up, and they are already inconvenienced by the emigration which takes place to the eastern districts every year. Further, the consequence of their changing from indigo to sugar and other country crops has been that they need labour at the same instead of at a different time from that at which the ordinary zamindar and cultivator require it.

PRICES.

A statement of the prices current in each subdivision during the years 1893—1902 is given in the Statistical Appendix. It is interesting

to compare these prices with those obtaining a century ago, and to realize how enormously the value of food-grains has risen. On the 1st December 1799 the price of the finest *arua* rice was 32½ seers, and of *sathi* rice 1 maund 5 seers per rupee; and in 1803, a year of scarcity, the cheapest rice sold at 1 maund 3 seers and the dearest at 20 seers per rupee, while the same sum could purchase 2 maunds 10 seers of barley. From the statement in the Statistical Appendix it will be seen that during the decade ending in 1902 the price of rice in the head-quarters subdivision was never less than 16 seers per rupee. Although, however, the price of staple food-grains has increased so greatly, the value of labour has also risen; there has been a great growth in the income of all classes; and during the last generation the development of communications has had the effect of levelling prices over larger and larger areas. Thirty years ago there was no railway in the district, but now each subdivision is bisected by a branch of the Tirhut State Railway, which places them in direct communication with the great granaries of India. There is consequently less variation in the prices of food-grains in different parts than formerly; and the failure of the crops has a tendency to be less felt, as well as the effect of failures in isolated tracts. Besides this, a great quantity of the labour is of an agricultural character and is paid in kind, so that the high prices affect a large section of the community less than would otherwise be the case.

FAMINE PRICES.

In the famine of 1866-67 the maximum price of rice was Rs. 8 per maund; and in 1873 prices were much higher than this in the beginning of January. On the 10th of that month the cheapest rate at which rice could be bought was Rs. 3 a maund, while barley, the cheapest grain in the district, fetched Rs. 2 a maund. The highest price of common rice reached during this famine was Rs. 5-12-0 a maund. In the famine of 1897 the price of common rice went even higher. In 1895-96 prices were below the normal up to July 1896, when they began to rise, the price of common rice going up steadily from that time from 11 seers to 10, 9 and 8 seers per rupee, the last figure was reached in the head-quarters subdivision in December 1896, in Sitamarhi in March 1897, and in Hajipur in April 1897. When it came to be realized that the *rabi* crop would be insufficient for the support of the people, prices rose again, and in July 1897 the price of common rice in Sitamarhi reached 6¾ seers the highest recorded anywhere in the district during that famine or at any other time.

MATERIAL CONDITION OF THE PEOPLE.

Writing in 1877 the Collector of Muzaffarpur described the people as pinched and stinted, partly by reason of over-population and partly through the *thikadari* system and the insufficient protection the rent law afforded the *ryots*. In good years the majority of the *ryots*, he said, enjoyed a bare sufficiency of the necessaries of life, and in years of short

outturn they suffered privations and sunk deeper and deeper in debt. Nine years later the Collector painted their condition in even blacker colours.

"Extreme poverty", he wrote, "is undoubtedly the lot of the great majority of the inhabitants of the district. The prevailing poverty is accompanied by a degree of dirt and sordidness in the personal habits of the people and of grinding penuriousness, which I have not seen in other parts of India. The circumstances of the lower classes have approached dangerously to the limits of destitution". Since that time the district has passed through the searching test of famine, which, straining as it does all their resources, is perhaps the best test of the prosperity of a people so dependent on the soil. The famine of 1896-97 furnished a striking demonstration of the general improvement which had taken place during the last generation, and showed that the picture drawn a decade before of the wretched condition of the people was either overdrawn or no longer represented the existing facts.

Nowhere did the famine of 1873-74 cause greater suffering than in the district of Tirhut, which comprised both Muzaffarpur and Darbhanga; and we have it on the authority of Sir A. P. MacDonnell that the *ryots* of that district were so impoverished, so utterly without resource, and so unable to bear up against the failure of a single season's crop that one-third of the population was at one period in receipt of relief from Government. In 1896-97, when the distress was at its greatest, more than three-fifths of the persons receiving relief in the division belonged to the districts of Muzaffarpur and Darbhanga; but instead of forming one-third of the population of those districts, they now formed less than 3½ per cent of it. The opinion of the Government of Bengal on this point is contained in the following extract from the Resolution on the Commissioner's report :—"That under less favourable circumstances than in 1873-74, the numbers requiring Government relief should have been so much less would appear to establish the fact of general improvement in the general circumstances of the people, but the whole conditions of the relief administration during the two famines were so different that the inference is not so conclusive as it would have been had the same methods been adopted in both cases. Nevertheless the general experience and observations of the officers engaged in the famine, some of them with knowledge of facts, both then and now, as well as the concurrent opinions of non-officials acquainted with these provinces, do indicate that even in Bihar, during the past quarter of a century, there has been a considerable advance in material prosperity, and that the power of the country as a whole to withstand the calamities of seasons has greatly increased."

Equally striking evidence of the increased prosperity of the people is afforded by the results of the enquiries made by Mr. Stevenson-Moore during the last settlement operations. He found that there are, on an average, in each square mile 45 persons who cultivate as landlords, 496 pure cultivators, 171 cultivating labourers, and 81 pure labourers, and

that 90 per cent of this population live in ordinary years in a very moderate state of comfort. It would, he considers, require a succession of very bad seasons to bring the cultivating labourer or the pure cultivator in any numbers to destitution, and the danger grows yearly less: but, he adds, it is impossible to obscure the fact that indications exist of cultivators being starved out to make room for the increasing pressure on the soil of the superior castes and landlord classes. This tendency is inevitable in a district containing a rapidly increasing population of petty proprietors. There is no doubt that the agricultural development of the north is more pronounced than that of the south; and it may be said broadly that in the south and centre of the district, where the standard of cultivation is high, where irrigation is practised to some extent, and where the population is not wholly dependent upon the rice crop, the lower agricultural classes are fairly well off, but that in the north and west, where these advantages do not exist, these classes, though better off than their neighbours in many parts of the districts of Champaran and Darbhanga, are in but poor condition and are liable to suffer severely in times of scarcity.

The one class which justifies the account given above of the destitution of the people is that of the landless labourer. Spending what he earns from day to day, he has very little to pawn or sell in times of distress; he gets no credit from the *mahajan*; and he is the first to succumb if the crops fail and he cannot get labour. His total income is estimated at Rs. 10—15, or Rs. 2—6 less than the amount required to maintain him in a fair state of comfort, and the first indication of real distress throws him on the hands of Government. Pure labourers, however, form only 9 per cent of the total population, and manage both their meals by having for one of them cheap root-crops, like *alua* and *suthni* which usually sell very cheap at the season when there is little field work to be done, *viz.*, in January and February. The agricultural classes are in a far better position, and have a resource unknown to the *ryot* of Bengal proper in the cultivation of indigo and opium. It has been calculated that on the whole the cultivation of indigo costs Rs. 40 per acre; and with the exception of Rs. 2 per acre for seed, which is obtained from the United Provinces, all the remainder of this cost is expended in the district. In this way, it is estimated, over 18¼ lakhs were paid away in hard cash in the famine year 1896-97. The cultivation of opium is on a far smaller scale, but the amount it brings into the pockets of the cultivators is considerable. Those who undertake to grow poppy receive advances in cash from the Opium Department, and these advances are made at a time when money is most wanted. In the famine of 1896-97 nearly four lakhs of rupees were paid on this account to the cultivators, and no less than six lakhs were advanced in 1904-05.

Another matter which should not be left out of account in estimating the prosperity of the people is the extent to which they receive remittances from abroad. Large numbers of labourers migrate annually at the

beginning of the cold weather, in search of work on the roads, railways and fields in other districts, returning to their homes at the end of the hot weather, in time for the agricultural operations, which commence with the bursting of the monsoon; and besides this, a considerable number of the adult males are spread over other parts of India in *quasi*-permanent employ. All these persons make remittances to their homes, while those who migrate for a time bring back with them the balance of their savings. In this way, large sums of money are sent or brought into the district every year, and are expended in the support of the inhabitants. In the famine year 1896-97 over 15 lakhs were paid by money-order in Muzaffarpur, the money-orders being almost all for sums below Rs. 10, and the average about half that sum; and it appears certain that a very large proportion represented remittances sent by emigrants to their homes. Since that time the amount thus remitted has increased, and in 1904-05 the total value of the money-orders paid amounted to 23½ lakhs of rupees. Considering that the amount paid in 1896-97 was unusually large in consequence of the exceptional drain on the resources of the inhabitants, this increase may fairly be taken as an indication of growing prosperity.

ENCLOSURE II.

Extract from the chapter on 'the Indigo Industry' of the Muzaffarpur District Gazetteer, 1907.

PROGRESS OF THE INDUSTRY.

Indigo was a product of North Bihar long before the advent of the British, but its cultivation by European methods appears to have been started by Francois Grand, the first Collector of Tirhut. Writing in 1785, three years after his appointment as Collector, he claims to have been the pioneer of the industry, and says :—"I introduced the manufacturing of indigo after the European manner, encouraged the establishment of indigo works and plantations, and erected three at my own expense." It is at least from this time that the manufacture of indigo began to develop into an industry, and to attract European enterprise. In 1788 there were five Europeans in possession of indigo works; in 1793 the number of factories had increased to nine, situated at Daudpur, Saraiya, Dhuli, Ottur (Athar), Shahpur, Kanti, Motipur, Deoria and Banara; and by the year 1803 altogether 25 factories had been established in Tirhut. During these early days the industry was directly fostered by the East India Company, and special permission had to be obtained by Europeans wishing to engage in it. In 1802, however, the Board of Directors passed orders that no further advances or other pecuniary encouragement should be given to the planters, as the large profits obtained from the sale of the product made such aid unnecessary. Indigo accordingly became an independent and self-supporting industry, the pioneer planting industry in Bengal.

Its progress in Tirhut during the next few years was rapid, though there appears to have been many failures, probably owing to over-production. In a report submitted in 1810 the Collector stated that taking one year with another, the district seldom sent less than 10,000 maunds of indigo to Calcutta for export to Europe; that 30,000 to 50,000 souls received their principal support from the factories; and that on the average each factory disbursed from Rs. 25,000 to Rs. 30,000 per annum in hard cash to the labourers and cultivators for some miles round the various concerns. He estimated that in this way not less than six or seven lakhs of rupees were circulated every year by the planters in Tirhut, and urged that the advantages of the industry to the labouring classes were so great that Government should encourage it in every possible way. "Let the speculator win or lose," he wrote, "acquire a princely fortune or die a pauper, the district is equally benefited by his industry, and his struggles for prosperity do rarely succeed. Some of the planters succeed, but the majority of them fail." Difficulties appear to have arisen later through the competition of rival concerns, and in 1828 the Collector represented that indigo cultivation had extended so greatly that some restriction on it was

desirable for the benefit of the district. " From the misunderstanding, " he wrote, " which has prevailed and still prevails amongst the European planters, disputes with one another are of very frequent occurrence : disputes have, however, of late occurred through descendants of Europeans embarking in indigo cultivation, worked chiefly, if not entirely, by native agency. For the peace of the district and welfare of the established planters, it therefore appears highly desirable that the Government restrictions regarding the erection of factories by Europeans should be extended to the descendants of Europeans, and power be vested in the Magistrate to prevent engagements for the cultivation of indigo plant by other than the proprietor or proprietors of one established factory. "

In 1850 there were no less than 86 factories in Tirhut, several of which were used for the manufacture of sugar, but about this time sugar was finally superseded by indigo as the European industry of the district, and many refineries were converted into indigo concerns. Difficulties were at one time threatened by the feeling of tension between the *ryots* and the factories produced by certain abuses which had crept into the system of cultivation; but the danger was averted by the planters themselves, who in 1877 formed the Bihar Planters' Association in order to put matters on a satisfactory footing.

Since that time the area under cultivation appears to have been steadily on the increase until the discovery of the Badische artificial dye. In 1897 it amounted to 87,258 acres or 5.62 of the cultivated area of the district, and in that year the Settlement Officer enumerated 23 head factories, with an average of three outworks under each, belonging to the Bihar Indigo Planters' Association, besides nine independent factories; while the industry was estimated to give employment throughout the year to 15 per cent of the labouring classes. Since then the industry has suffered from the competition of the artificial dye in Europe and from the high prices of food-grains and the consequent demand for land in Bihar. The price of the natural dye has fallen rapidly, and the area under cultivation has diminished, being estimated at 35,000 acres in 1904, while the final forecast of the indigo crop in Bengal returned the area sown in 1905 as only 25,000 acres Government has come to the aid of the planters with substantial grants for scientific research, the aim of which is to ascertain whether it is possible to increase the outturn and quality of the dye at a cheaper cost; excellent work in the chemistry, bacteriology and agriculture of indigo has been done and is still progressing; and every effort is being made to improve the quality of the plant by importing fresh seed from Natal. But so far these experiments have not succeeded in arresting the decay of the industry. The price obtained for indigo is barely sufficient to cover the cost of production and many factories are either closing altogether or are reducing the area cultivated with indigo, growing in its place sugar, cotton, and country crops. The figures given below

show sufficiently clearly how greatly the outturn has decreased in consequence of these adverse conditions :—

Year.	Outturn.	Value.	Price per maund.
	Mds.	Rs.	Rs.
1895—1900 (average) ..	14,573	27,14,800	186
1900-01	14,185	19,85,900	140
1904-05	4,045	6,06,750	150

CULTIVATION.

The land on which indigo is to be grown is prepared for sowing as soon as the *kharif* crops are reaped, as it is of great importance that the soil should retain the moisture supplied by the rainfall in October and November. The land is ploughed and reploughed until the clods are all pulverized, and after being manured, is levelled and smoothed with a plank roller composed of a long heavy beam on which two men stand. The seed is sown at the beginning of the hot weather, as soon as the nights begin to get warm, a special drill, with coulters about five or six inches apart, being used for the purpose; and after sowing, the roller is again used to level the surface. The seedlings are very delicate until their roots are well developed, and many perish owing to dry west winds; but moist east winds after sowing, and spring showers later, are very beneficial to the young plants. They make slow progress until the monsoon sets in, when the growth becomes very rapid; and they are ready for cutting, which takes place immediately before they flower, in July or August. A second crop is obtained in September, but usually yields less than the first crop, the average outturn of which is 80 to 120 maunds of green plant per acre; the yield of 100 maunds of good plant should be about ten seers of indigo.

Soils and Manures.

Indigo may follow indigo, but is more generally rotated with such crops as sugarcane, poppy, tobacco, cereals and oil-seeds. It is usually grown on high lands beyond the reach of floods; the soils are necessarily varied in character and composition, but deep alluvium loams seem to suit the crop best. Many soils of this description are deficient in phosphoric acid and nitrogen, but are generally rich in other useful constituents; while extensive experiments have proved that superphosphate and nitrate of potash can be economically applied to them. The refuse indigo plant (*sith*) is the manure most easily obtained, and is very valuable; but it is less suited for indigo itself than for rotation crops, such as sugarcane, tobacco, poppy, cereals and oil-seeds. It produces heavy crops of indigo, but the leaf is deficient in colouring matter; and indigo grown on land heavily treated with *sith* is liable to injury from insect-pests.

Seed.

The seed used in Tirhut comes for the most part from the United Provinces, as there is a general belief that the best seed is obtainable there, and that local seed does not keep good from season to season and does not germinate properly. The system of getting seed in this way, without any special selection, has caused deterioration in the varieties generally grown, and there is little doubt that the plant commonly cultivated does not now produce a satisfactory amount of dye matter, particularly on worn-out indigo lands. The chief cultivated form is *Indigofera Sumatrana*, which was introduced about 150 years ago, and not *Indigofera tinctoria* as was formerly supposed.

Within recent years Natal indigo (*Indigofera arrecta*) has been introduced, the seed being obtained direct from Natal and also from plants acclimatized in Java. This plant has been found to give a very considerable increase of colouring matter from the unit area of land. It has a much more vigorous habit of growth than the old variety, and the leaf contains a larger proportion of the colour-yielding principle. It appears to be eminently suited to the soils and climate of Bihar, and farms have now been established in three districts for the cultivation of its seed on an extended scale.

Colouring matter.

The colouring matter from which indigotin is derived exists almost entirely in the leaf of the plant. It increases as the plant grows, but deteriorates after a certain stage, and harvesting and steeping have therefore to be carried on expeditiously. Plants which have been cut some time and become blackened by heating in bulk contain very little dye matter, so that the green plant cannot be carted very far. A plant which is forced by manure to very active growth also gives a poor percentage of dye matter.

MANUFACTURE.

Steeping.

When cut the leaves are taken to the factory, and are there steeped in large vats until fermentation is complete. The old system of manufacture requires two sets of vats, the vats on the higher level being used for steeping the plant, which is kept submerged by logs of wood or bars fixed in position. During this process active fermentation takes place through the action of soluble ferments (enzymes), causing the formation of a compound which is easily convertible into indigotin by the action of air. The period of steeping varies with the temperature of the air and water. If the temperature of the water is 90° to 92°F., steeping for ten hours is sufficient, but instead of varying the time, it is preferable to heat the water in the reservoir to a definite temperature. It has been found that when the plant is steeped in water at 150° to 160°F., the colouring principle is extracted in half an hour, and indigo made in this way is superior in quality, containing about 75 per cent of indigotin.

Oxidation or beating process.

When fermentation is complete, the liquid in the steeping vats, which varies in colour from bright orange to olive green, is drained off into the lower oxidizing vats, and is there subjected to a brisk beating, the effect of which is to cause oxidation and separate the particles of dye. As the oxidation proceeds, dark blue particles of indigotin appear in the liquid, and the beating is continued until a little of the liquid placed in a saucer readily throws a dark blue precipitate. If there is any delay in oxidation, there is a considerable loss of colouring matter, and the indigo produced is inferior. Oxidation was at one time accomplished by hand-beating, but in most Bihar factories it is now done by a beating wheel worked by power from a central engine.

Lime and ammonia process.

The improved method of treating the plant known as Coventry's lime and acid process requires a vat intermediate between the steeping and beating vat. Lime is added to the indigo liquor, and a precipitate of calcium and magnesium carbonates then forms, which also carries down various other impurities. The cleared liquor, when run off into a lower vat and oxidized, yields indigo of good quality, and a substantial increase of colouring matter is obtained. An ammonia gas process patented by Mr. Rawson in 1901 also produces a direct increase of colouring matter.

Boiling and final preparation.

Finally, the sediment (known as *mal*) is boiled, strained and made up into cakes for the market. The precipitate which settles after oxidation is first boiled, and the dye matter is then placed on a cloth strainer until it becomes fairly dry. It is then carried to the press and subjected to gradually increasing pressure until it has taken the form of firm slabs, which are cut into cakes and slowly dried on racks. Good indigo should be bright and of a dark blue colour, with a coppery gloss, and should contain 60 per cent or more of indigotin.

LANDED INTERESTS.

In the course of the last survey and settlement operations it was ascertained that, in their capacity as superior landlords, the indigo factories held 17.59 per cent of the district area, but that their landed interests were secure only in a little over 2 per cent, which they held as proprietors or permanent tenure-holders. The reason for this is that a factory has seldom an opportunity of buying an estate with lands situated conveniently for its purposes, as the sale of estates is regarded as a social disgrace only to be resorted to in the last extremity: while the practice of granting permanent leases has almost entirely died out with the rise in the value of land. Factories are, therefore, mainly dependent on temporary leases for acquiring interests in villages in which they wish to extend or maintain the cultivation of indigo.

Such leases are granted as security for mortgages or are simple farming leases (*thika*). The latter, which are also called *khushkpatta*,

are due to the financial embarrassment of proprietors and to their desire to avoid the troubles of management. The term of the lease may vary from 5 to 20 years, and its renewal is generally made an opportunity for increasing the rent. These *thika* leases are the commonest of all; and it is to the *thika* system and to its influence as landlord that the factory owes the strength of its position.

The other class of leases common in the district consists of usufructuary mortgages, under which the factory grants a loan at a moderate rate of interest and receives the land of an embarrassed proprietor as security. Leases of this kind are either *zarpeshgi* or *sadua patua*. In the former case the interest on the loan is paid yearly by deducting it from the rent, and the principal is repayable on the expiry of the lease; in the latter both principal and interest are liquidated by deduction from the yearly rent due to the proprietor. It pays the factories to invest money in this way, as it gives them a footing in the villages, and, the mortgagors being generally unable to repay, the lease gives the planter greater security for his continuance in possession.

In some cases factories take a lease of an under-tenure, this lease being known as *katkana*, e.g., if two factories quarrel about their respective jurisdictions, a sub-lease from one to the other generally forms the basis of a compromise. Again, a proprietor is prepared to grant a lease of his estate to a factory on condition that it takes the whole, but part may fall within the jurisdiction of another factory. In such a case, the good services of the Indigo Planters' Association are called in to arrange for the latter factory taking a sub-lease from the former, and thus the danger of friction is avoided.

Occasionally the factory acquires land as an under-*ryot* under what are called *kurtauli* leases. These correspond to the *sadua patua* leases granted by proprietors to tenure-holders; the factory gives the *ryot* an advance of so many years rental of the land taken up, and in return is allowed to cultivate the land for that period, giving it back to the *ryot* on its expiry. *Kurtauli* leases are generally executed for part-holdings only, and the *ryot* remains in the village, cultivating the portion which he has not sublet to the factory. An analogous form of mortgage is the *sud-bharna*, in which, as in a *zarpeshgi* tenure, the factory gives an advance on which the interest only is liquidated by deduction from the annual rent for the land sublet, the factory retaining possession until the principal is repaid.

SYSTEMS OF CULTIVATION.

Ziraat.

The three main systems of indigo cultivation are commonly called *ziraat* or direct cultivation by means of hired servants, *asamiwar* or cultivation through factory tenants, and *khushki* or cultivation through outside *ryots*. The term *ziraat* includes all land in the direct occupation of the factory, whether held by it as proprietor, tenure-holder, *ryot* or

under-*ryot*. Altogether 61½ per cent of the area under indigo is *ziraat*, out of which the factories hold 38½ per cent under *thika* leases, and have therefore only a temporary landlord interest; in 11 per cent the factories have the rights of *ryots* or under-*ryots*; and in practically all the remainder they have a permanent landlord interest as proprietors or permanent tenure-holders (*mukararidars*).

Asamiwar.

When the system of *asamiwar* cultivation is followed, the indigo is grown by the factory tenants at fixed rates per *bigha*. Generally documents, called *sattas*, are executed, the *ryot* receiving an advance and binding himself to grow indigo on a certain specified portion of his holding, and to pay damages if he should fail to carry out his agreement. All the expenses of cultivation are paid by the *ryot*, but the seed is given by the factory, which also cuts and carts away the indigo, the *ryot* being paid for the indigo at a rate fixed by the Indigo Planters' Association.

Khushki.

Agreements executed by *ryots* who are not the tenants of the factory are called *khushki sattas* or voluntary agreements. In this case the factory merely supplies the seed and pays for the crop when delivered; it sometimes also gives an advance to the cultivator at a light rate of interest. The amount of *khushki* cultivation in Muzaffarpur is small, as, if it is to pay, indigo requires selected lands, carefully cultivated, and rotated in an intelligent manner. These conditions are all wanting in the *khushki* system: the rate of remuneration has to be high in order to induce the outside *ryot* to grow indigo; and the factory therefore cannot afford this system of cultivation.

INFLUENCE OF THE INDUSTRY.

Regarding the general effect of the industry on the district, the following opinion of the Settlement Officer may be quoted :—

" That a district should contain a large community of honourable English gentlemen joined together by a common bond of interest, anxious and prompt to devote their time and energies to the service of Government in times of danger and difficulty, is a source of political and administrative strength too obvious to require more than a passing notice. " After reviewing the relations between the indigo concerns and the zamindars and *ryots*, he sums up the position as follows :— " My general conclusions are that the indigo industry confers a very material benefit on the district. It has saved many a proprietor from inevitable ruin; it has brought immense profits to the poorest and most depressed portion of the population; the political and administrative advantages that accrue to the Government cannot admit of question. Against these advantages are to be set the possible disadvantages, and perhaps, in isolated cases, hardships of the *satta* system to a very limited portion of the cultivating classes. The aggregate balance of advantage is clearly on the side of the indigo industry. " " The agricultural classes ", he says, " have the advantage of knowing the

ordinary indigo-planter to be a good and considerate landlord. It is an axiom of the Association that the successful concern is the one on good terms with its tenants. The general tone in this respect is thoroughly sound and good, and Government, the indigo community itself, and the cultivator are largely indebted to the Indigo Planters' Association for its introduction, as well as for the cordial relations that exist between indigo-managers and the local administration. "

THE BIHAR PLANTERS' ASSOCIATION.

The present state of affairs is in striking contrast to that previously existing, some idea of which may be gathered from the account of the origin of the Association given in the Bengal Administration Report of 1877-78. According to this account, a report submitted by the Commissioner of Patna conclusively showed that the system of cultivation then prevailing involved an amount of lawlessness and oppression, principally in the shape of extorted agreements to cultivate and of seizure of ploughs and cattle, which could not be tolerated. On receipt of this report, some of the leading planters as well as the officials of Bihar were consulted through the Commissioner. It was important to do nothing which would unduly excite the mind of the *ryots*, and to avoid any such agitation as might lead to breaches of contract and the general embitterment of the relations between planters and *ryots;* and as some of the leading planters declared themselves sensible of the necessity of reform and willing to assist in the work, and for this purpose undertook the establishment of a Planters' Association, action on the part of Government was postponed and the matter was entrusted to their hands This body showed a sincere desire to place the relations between planters and *ryots* on a more satisfactory footing, and drew up a series of rules embodying very important reforms for the guidance of the members of the Association. The remarks quoted above show that since that time it has been successful in maintaining friendly relations both with the cultivators and Government: and that it has helped greatly in advancing the development and prosperity of the district. This is the more satisfactory when it is remembered that the cultivation of indigo is not very popular with the *ryot*, as though it is raised on only a small proportion of his holding, indigo is not so remunerative as other crops which he might grow on the same land; he does not like the constant worry of being supervised by the factory servants, and there is consequently the risk of friction with the factory. On the other hand, the planters have consistently shown themselves true friends to the cultivators and labourers in periods of adversity. Their readiness to help the latter was very clearly shown in the last famine of 1896-97. and the value of their services at this time of distress may be gathered from the remarks of the Commissioner, who wrote—

> " The planting community, as in 1873-74. proved to be of inestimable value in the crisis. In the former year many of these were stimulated by the prospects of pecuniary advantage; in 1896-97 no such stimulus was offered; but

at an early stage of the operations their services were offered gratuitously—an offer which they more than redeemed. Numbers of them sacrificed time, ease and health to assist Government, and many of them have been losers by their public-spirited efforts. Yet the work has been cheerfully done, and the community have once more proved themselves invaluable to the administration."

FACTORIES.

The following is a list of the factories in the district with their outworks :—

HEADQUARTERS SUBDIVISION.		HAJIPUR SUBDIVISION.	
Factories.	Outworks.	Factories.	Outworks.
Bhikhanpur	Bochaha. Jhapaha. Sahajpur. Simraha.	Agrail ..	Bela. . Dubaha.
Daudpur ..	Arijpur. Chhajan. Musahri.	Bhataulia Chaksikandar.	Ramdaspur.
Deoria ..	Karamwari. Majhaulia. Sherpur.	Chhitwara ..	Bishunpur. Harpur (Sul-khani).
Dhuli ..	Barauli. Sakri. Sarbnala.	Karhari.	
Kanti ..	Lautan. Nariar. Raghai.	Kutubpur ..	Chapta. Dharampur.
Karnaul ..	Gaura. Manain. Tajpur.	Mian Chhapra. Pokhraira.	
Motipur ..	Bariarpur. Chaklahran. Jagannathpur. Murarpur.	Shahpur Mircha.	

Headquarters Subdivision.		Sitamarhi Subdivision.	
Factories.	Outworks.	Factories.	Outworks.
Ottur (Athar).	Ghosrama. Hasna. Muhammadpur.	Baluaha.	
Mahual.		Belsand ..	Belah . Bhagwanpur.
Pirakpur.			
Saraiya ..	Azizpur. Karneji. Kowalpura. Muhammadpur.	Dumra ..	Bokraha. Narkatia. Panchhaur.
Thikaha ...	Pakri. Godai.	Runi Saiyad-pur.	

[For more details Munden Wilson's History of Bihar, Stevenson Moore's Settlement Report, Gandhiji's Autobiography, Dr. Rajendra Prasad's Champaran Satyagraha, Dr. H. R. Ghoshal's Economic Transition in Bengal and P. C. Roy Choudhury's Gandhiji's First Struggle in India may be consulted.]

ENCLOSURE III.

Extract from the chapter on 'the People' from the Gazetteer of the Muzaffarpur District (1907).

GROWTH OF POPULATION.

" Until the year 1875 Muzaffarpur formed part of the old district of Tirhut, and no separate enumeration of its inhabitants took place. A rough census of Tirhut was, however, carried out in 1802 by the Collector, who estimated the population to be 2,000,000 persons: and seventy years afterwards when the first regular census was taken, it was reported to be 4,384,706, though in all probability the real total was nearer 4,500,000, as this first enumeration was wanting in accuracy. In other words, the increase of the population during these 70 years was no less than 125 per cent or 1.78 per cent per annum. According to the statistics which have been prepared, it appears that in 1872 the population of Muzaffarpur alone was 2,246,752, and when the next census was taken it had increased to 2,583,404. The growth of the population in these nine years was therefore, nearly 15 per cent or 1.66 per cent per annum; and though, as already indicated, some of the increase is due to the defects of the census of 1872, it is noticeable that this rate of progress closely corresponding to that observed in the seventy years after 1802, especially as the estimate of 2,000,000 then made was probably under the mark, as almost all early estimates of the population were The Collector accordingly pointed out that, if the people continued to increase at the same rate, they would double their numbers in sixty years, but it is a matter of some satisfaction that the already overcrowded population of the district has not continued to increase with the rapidity then predicted. During the next ten years there was a further increase of only 129,543, or 5.01 per cent, the total number aggregating 2,712,857; and the census of 1901 disclosed only a slight increase of 41,933 or 1.5 per cent, the whole population amounting to 2,754,790* persons.

CENSUS OF 1901.

During the preceding ten years the district had been severely tried both by flood, famine and disease. There were crop failures in 1891-92, when relief operations on a small scale had to be undertaken, and in 1896-97 the whole of the district except the southern part of Hajipur was visited by famine. There were heavy floods in 1898, which caused considerable damage, and there were epidemics of cholera in 1892, 1894, 1896 and 1900, which carried off more than 76,000 persons. In other respects, however, the public health was fairly good; the floods caused no permanent injury; and, thanks to a succession of good harvests the effects of the famine were not long felt. By the end of the decade the people had entirely recovered their normal condition; and

*This figure according to the District Census Hand Book, 1951 should be 2.756.180.

it is a notable fact that Muzaffarpur and Darbhanga, which suffered most in the famine year, showed the greatest growth of population.

In Muzaffarpur every thana in the great rice-growing tract north of the Baghmati, where the stress of famine was greatest, showed a marked increase, while every thana south of that river lost population. This is at first sight the more remarkable, as the country to the north of the Baghmati is more marshy than to the south, and its climate is reputed to be less salubrious than the rest of the district; but the explanation appears to be that the increase is largely due to immigration. The population of the former tract has been growing steadily since the time of the first census of 1872; it attracts settlers both from Nepal and the southern part of the district, and the progress is greatest in the Sitamarhi and Sheohar thanas which march with the Nepal frontier. The Sitamarhi subdivision accordingly showed an increase of 6.73 per cent, while the Hajipur subdivision, which sustained a slight loss of population in the decade preceding the census of 1891, was practically stationary, in spite of the fact that it is the most fertile part of the district. The headquarters subdivision, where there was a falling off of 2.3 per cent, was the only decadent portion, the decrease of population in the Muzaffarpur thana being as high as 5.6 per cent, but here the decrease is due to the fact that it suffered most severely from cholera, and that it is this tract which supplies most of the persons who emigrate to Lower Bengal in search of work. There is a complete railway system within and to the south of this area, which greatly facilitates emigration, and the loss of population is largely due to the exodus of its inhabitants.

GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS.

Density of population.—Although exceeded by the figures for a few individual districts, such as Howrah and Dacca, the portion of North Bihar which comprises the three districts of Saran, Muzaffarpur and Darbhanga has a more teeming population than any other tract of equal size in Bengal or Eastern Bengal; and of these three districts the most populous is Muzaffarpur. Here there is the enormous number of 908 persons to the square mile, but the inhabitants are very evenly distributed; only in a small tract to the west does the average number per square mile fall below 900, while in no part of the district does it exceed 1,000. The density is least in the Paro thana with 731 persons to the square mile, and greatest in the Pupri and Sitamarhi thanas, where it rises as high as 982 and 966 to the square mile. The mean density of the latter thana has increased by 142 per square mile since 1881, when the pressure of the population, though high, was the lowest in the district. This great growth of population is apparently due almost entirely to immigration both from Nepal and from other parts of the district.

MIGRATION.

From the fact that the proportion of emigrants from Muzaffarpur enumerated during the census of 1901 was 557 and of immigrants 318

per 10,000 of the population, it will be apparent that migration is unusually active, especially as the figures do not include the persons who migrated across the Nepal frontier, where land is plentiful and rents are low. Altogether 87,700 immigrants and 153,500 emigrants were enumerated, the number of emigrants being thus nearly double that of immigrants. Of the former over 71,000 were born in the contiguous districts, and of the latter 80,700 migrated to those districts, large numbers being attracted by the unoccupied land in the north of Champaran. Muzaffarpur therefore loses slightly by this movement of the population. The immigrants from a distance are fewer in proportion to its population than in any other district of North Bihar, but on the other hand the number of emigrants to distant parts of the Province, or outside it, is exceeded only by those from Saran, though they are barely one-third as numerous as those from that district. The emigrants go to the metropolitan districts and to Bhagalpur, Purnea and North Bengal, the general trend of the people being eastward.

Towns and villages.

Muzaffarpur is distinctively an agricultural district, and of the total population only 3 per cent live in urban areas, the remainder of the inhabitants congregating in 4,120 villages, the average population per village being 647. There are only 4 towns—Muzaffarpur with a population of 45,617, Hajipur (21,398), Lalganj (11,502), and Sitamarhi (9,538); but there are twenty-two places with a population of between 5,000 and 10,000 of which the most important are Sursand (9,356), Bariarpur (9,121), Charaut (8,947), Manikchak (7,739), Akhta (7,234), Fagwana (6,836), Anudan Kallan (6,479), Sukchandi (6,176), and Kanti (5,217). The majority of the people, however, live in villages with a population of 500 to 1,000 or of 1,000 to 2,000 inhabitants. These villages vary greatly in size, ranging from a few acres to 3 square miles, and even to 19 square miles in the *diara*, but the average area is 431 acres. Generally speaking, the largest are found in the north and the smallest in the south of the district, the average size ranging from 681 acres in Pupri to 296 acres in the Hajipur thana.

The rural population is far more progressive than the urban, the mean density per square mile increasing from 736 in 1872 to 847 in 1881, to 888 in 1891, and finally to 903 in 1901, or by 167 in the last 30 years. In the same period the urban population has increased only by 12,128. During the last decade Sitamarhi was the only progressive town, and Muzaffarpur lost no less than 9 per cent of its population, though it still contained 3,000 more inhabitants than in 1881. The decrease is, however, to a great extent, more apparent than real, as it was due to the exclusion of one of the old wards from municipal limits and the temporary absence of a large number of people in connection with marriage ceremonies. But for this, it would probably have returned at least as many inhabitants as in 1891.

Sex.

In common with other Bihar districts, Muzaffarpur has a marked excess of females over males, there being 1,089 females to every 1,000 males—a ratio higher than in any other North Bihar district except Saran.

*Language.**

The vernacular current in the district is the dialect of Bihari Hindi called Maithili, i.e., the language of Mithila or the country bounded on the north by the Himalayas, on the south by the Ganges, on the west by the Gandak, and on the east by the river Kosi. The Maithili spoken in Muzaffarpur is, however, strongly infected by the Bhojpuri spoken in various forms in the adjacent district of Saran and in the greater part of Champaran. So much is this the case that, as spoken by some people, it is difficult to say whether the dialect is Maithili or Bhojpuri. This form of Maithili is classed by Dr. Grierson as Western Maithili. The language spoken in the north of the district differs somewhat from that spoken in central and south Muzaffarpur, as the latter is still more strongly infected with Bhojpuri. Even in the north, however, the dialect might with equal propriety be classed as a form of Bhojpuri, though the Brahmans speak a purer form of Maithili than other castes, and still use the Maithili alphabet. The language is in a transition stage, and has been classed by Dr. Grierson in the *Linguistic Survey of India* as a dialect of Maithili, because the country where it is spoken belongs historically to the ancient kingdom of Mithila.†

The low caste Musalmans of Muzaffarpur speak a form of the Awadhi dialect of Eastern Hindi (literally the language of Oudh) which is locally known as the *Jolaha Boli*, as the majority of these Muhammadans belong to the Jolaha or weaver caste. This dialect is excellent Awadhi with a slight infusion of the local Maithili and of Hindustani, and it is estimated that in Muzaffarpur it is used by 204,954 persons. When speaking to Europeans, this dialect is commonly used as a sort of language of politeness by the rustics, who have picked it up from their Musalman neighbours and imagine it to be the Hindustani of polite society.**

Written character.

No less than three different alphabets are in use in the tract in which Maithili is spoken. The Maithili character proper, which is closely akin to the Bengali, is that used by Maithil Brahmans, and the character which is used by all the other castes is the Kaithi. The

*This sketch of the language of Muzaffarpur is taken from Dr. Grierson's *Linguistic Survey of India*, Vols. IV and V.

†There has been further research in the subject but we need not go into that line (P. C. R. C.).

**The conclusions mentioned as in the case of the spoken dialect for the Hindus are open to question (P. C. R. C.).

Devanagari character is used by a few of the educated classes, and is understood and read by all persons who pretend to a liberal education; besides this, the Urdu character is employed by the better educated Muhammadans.

Literature.

Maithili is the only one of the Bihari dialects which has a literary history.* For centuries the Pandits of Mithila have been famous for their learning, and more than one Sanskrit work of authority has been written by them. One of the few learned women of India whose name has come down to us, was Lakhima Thakurani, who according to tradition, lived in the middle of the 15th Century A. D. Nor was the field of vernacular literature neglected. The earliest vernacular writer of whom we have any record was the celebrated Vidyapati Thakkura, who graced the court of Maharaja Siva Singh of Sugaon, and flourished about the same time. As a writer of Sanskrit works, he was an author of considerable repute, but it is upon his dainty songs in the vernacular that his fame chiefly rests. He was the first of the old master singers, whose short religious poems, dealing principally with Radha and Krishna, exercised such an important influence on the religious history of Eastern India. His songs were adopted and enthusiastically recited by the celebrated Hindu reformer Chaitanya, who flourished at the beginning of the 16th century; and through him, they became the house-poetry of the Lower Provinces. Vidyapati Thakkura or, as he is called in the vernacular, Bidyapat Thakur, had many imitators in Mithila itself, of whom we know nothing except the names of the most popular and a few stray verses.

Amongst other writers in Maithili may be mentioned Manbodh Jha, who died about the year 1788 A. D. He composed a Haribansa, or poetical life of Krishna, of which ten cantos are still extant, and enjoy great popularity. The drama has had several authors in Mithila, where the local custom has been to write the body of a play in Sanskrit, but the songs in the vernacular. There has been a remarkable revival of Maithili literature during the past few years, and at least one author deserving of special note has come to the front, Chandra Jha, who has shown remarkable literary powers. He has written a *Mithila bhasha Ramayana*, and a translation, with an edition of the original Sanskrit text, of the *Purusha pariksha* of Vidyapati Thakkura, both of which will well repay the student by their perusal.

* * * * *

RELIGIONS.

Hindus and Muhammadans.

Muzaffarpur occupies a somewhat uncommon position in being a district practically free from any religious sect except Hindus, Muhammadans and Christians; the members of all other religions only

*There has been further research in the other dialects since (P. C. R. C.).

numbered 15 at the last census. The great bulk of the inhabitants are Hindus, who with a total of 2,416,415 persons account for 87.71 per cent of the population, and practically all the remainder are Muhammadans (337,641). * * * *

* * * * *

Christians.

There are only 719 Christians, of whom 341 are natives. Four Christian missions are at work in the district, all of which have their headquarters in Muzaffarpur town, viz., the German Evangelical Lutheran Mission, founded in 1840, which maintains a primary school for destitute orphans; the American Methodist Episcopal Missionary Society, which possesses two schools; a branch of the Bettiah Roman Catholic Mission; and an independent lady missionary engaged in zanana work.

PRINCIPAL CASTES.

The most numerous Hindu castes are the Goalas, Babhans, Dosadhs, Rajputs, Koiris, Chamars, and Kurmis, which all number over 100,000 and account between them for nearly a half of the total population; while Brahmans, Dhanuks, Kandus, Mallahs, Nunias, Tantis and Telis each number between 50,000 and 100,000. Of the Muhammadans, 127,254 are Sheikhs and 85,217 are Jolahas, while Dhunias (35,651) and Kunjras (26,406) are also numerous."

This text on the People by O'Malley in the last District Gazetteer of Muzaffarpur published in 1907 needs supplementing on some of the facts.

GROWTH OF POPULATION.

The growth of population of Muzaffarpur district since 1901 has been as follows :—

Year.	Souls.	Variation.	Males.	Females.
1901 ..	2,756,130	..	1,319,110	1,437,020
1911 ..	2,845,514	+ 89,384	1,360,200	1,485,314
1921 ..	2,754,945	— 90,569	1,324,991	1,429,954
1931 ..	2,941,025	+186,080	1,443,847	1,497,178
1941 ..	3,244,651	+303,626	1,584,279	1,660,372
1951 ..	3,520,739	+276,088	1,730,750	1,789,989

The variation in the population from 1901 figure as compared in 1951 figure shows an addition of 764,609. The figures quoted above will show that there was a decline in 1921 which recorded a minus variation of 90,569 souls. Since 1921 there was a rise in the population but the incidence of variation has fluctuated. In 1931 the variation was plus 186,080 while the variation in 1941 was plus 303,626. The 1951 figure as compared with 1941 figure shows a variation of plus 276,088.

The details of the population according to 1951 census, in the different subdivisions are as follows :—

Subdivisions.	Area in square mile.	Number of—		Population.
		Towns.	Villages.	
Sitamarhi ..	1,007	2	1,005	1,201,086
Sadar ..	1,222	1	1,737	1,377,181
Hajipur ..	786	3	1,429	942,472

The urban population of the district is 135,696; and the urban-rural ratio is 1 :25.

The causes for the fluctuation in the incidence of population would be apparent if the facts mentioned in the Chapters on 'Natural Calamities', 'Public Health' and 'Economic Condition' are taken into consideration. Unfortunately the district of Muzaffarpur has been subject to a number of floods and droughts. Some of them were of severe type. Any economic deterioration in the district leads to factors affecting the population, such as emigration, casualties due to epidemics, etc. The remarkable decline in the population of 90,569 souls in 1921 census was apparently due to a high prevalence of epidemics particularly of malaria. For a few years the district of Muzaffarpur was ravaged by malaria particularly in portions of Sadar and Sitamarhi subdivisions. There was also a wide influenza epidemic which took away many lives. It is also to be remembered that the two census years 1941 and 1951 almost immediately followed a war or a period of scarcity.

Urban population.

Another remarkable change since O'Malley's description has been the growth of towns. There has been an appreciable trend of the section belonging to the higher income group and educated section coming over to the towns from villages. The towns provide more chances for employment to the educated and more of amenities to the moneyed classes. Abolition of zamindaries and a wave of lawlessness

and crime in the rural areas have also encouraged a movement of population from rural to the urban areas. This trend is not likely to go down till the conditions of the villages are upgraded or there are more avenues for employment. This will need the location of some industries in the villages. The recent trend of decentralisation of administration and the assignment of the Block Development Offices and National Extension Service Centres in the villages is a move in the right direction to upgrade the condition of the villages.

The growth of population in Muzaffarpur town has been as follows :—

1901	45,617
1911	43,668
1921	32,755
1931	43,049
1941	54,139
1951	73,594

Since 1901 the net variation of the population in Muzaffarpur town as compared with 1951 figure is of plus 27,977.

The town of Hajipur had a population of 21,398 in 1901. There was a drop in the population in 1911 census which recorded 19,223. The 1921 census recorded a further decline of the population which dropped to 16,760. But from 1931 there has been an upward movement of population and in 1951 the recorded figure was 25,149.

Sitamarhi has recorded an even but a small accretion in the population since 1901. The population in 1951 stood at 13.267 as against 9,538 in 1901.

Lalganj in Hajipur subdivision stands on a somewhat different footing. It may be recalled that Lalganj was at one time an important commercial centre, particularly for river-borne trade. But there has been a trend of decline so far as the river trade is concerned. That is why Lalganj recorded a decline in population in 1911 and 1921. In 1921 the population had dropped to 7,148 as against the 1901 figure of 11,502. In 1951 the population was recorded as 12,394. The two other towns Mahnar Bazar and Dumra are of recent origin. The population figures in 1951 for Mahnar Bazar and Dumra were 9,214 and 2,078, respectively.

Rural population.

There are now 4,171 villages and 6 towns as against 4,120 villages and 4 towns mentioned before. The present urban population of 135,696 as compared to 3,385,043 of rural population works out a ratio of 1 :25. It could well be said that in spite of the growth of the urban areas Muzaffarpur district lives and is destined to live in the villages.

The variation of population will show that there has been a preponderance of female population over the male population. The figures

of the male and female population in the different census years has been as follows :—

			Male.	Female.
1901	...	...	1,319,110	1,437,020
1911	...	...	1,360,200	1,485,314
1921	...	...	1,324,991	1,429,954
1931	...	...	1,443,847	1,497,178
1941	...	...	1,584,279	1,660,372
1951	...	...	1,730,750	1,789,989

Emigration and Immigration.

The incidence of emigration from Muzaffarpur district is not recorded as high although there is a good deal of seasonal emigration. The Tea districts of Assam do not attract the labour from Muzaffarpur as the Tea districts encourage migration at least for a few years. But it is a fact that Muzaffarpur labourers migrate to other districts of Bihar and West Bengal in the reaping season and they usually come back after harvesting crops in those districts.

The table below will show the birth places of the population enumerated in the census of 1951 :—

Patna Division	...	...	...	3,394
Tirhut Division (excluding Muzaffarpur)			...	43,940
Bhagalpur Division	...	...	...	2,667
Chotanagpur Division	...	...	...	403
States in India beyond the State		..	...	3,444
Countries in Asia beyond India		...	...	6,805
Countries in America	...	...	...	1
Countries in Australia	...	...	...	1
			Total	60,655

Density.

Regarding the density of population it may be said that for decades Muzaffarpur had the highest incidence of density in the State of Bihar but there has been a slight fall in the density of population in Muzaffarpur district in 1951 census which stands at 1,168 persons per square mile as against 1,178 persons in Saran district. O'Malley had mentioned that there were 908 persons to a square mile. At the moment the district of Saran has the highest incidence of density in the State of Bihar but Muzaffarpur comes close second. It may be mentioned that there is hardly any appreciable quantity of culturable waste land in either of the districts of Muzaffarpur or Saran. Generally cultivated lands are hardly left fallow for even a fortnight to re-coup. It shows the fertility of the soil for particular crops.

Hajipur is the most densely populated thana, supporting 1,567 persons to the square mile. Excepting Raghopur with a density of

636 and Baruraj with 887 per square mile, all the remaining thanas of the district have recorded more than 900 souls. A further saturation of the population without any industrialisation may not be to the economic benefit of the district.

Sex and Civil Conditions.

Regarding Sex and Civil Conditions the following figures will be of interest.

In common with the other districts of North Bihar, Muzaffarpur has an excess of 59,239 females over males according to the census of 1951. The trend of increase of the female population over males is somewhat fairly steady there being 1,089 females to every 1,000 males in 1901, 1,092 females to every 1,000 males in 1911, 1,079 to every 1,000 in 1921, 1,037 to every 1,000 in 1931, 1,048 to every 1,000 in 1941 and 1,034 females to 1,000 males in 1951.

The civil condition by age periods as enumerated in 1951 census is given below :—

Age periods.	Total population.		Married.		Unmarried.		Widowed and divorced.	
	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
5—14 ...	43,640	39,947	5,368	5,418	38,243	34,468	29	61
15—24 ..	26,227	27,226	15,982	22,574	9,967	4,216	278	436
25—34 ...	24,643	26,700	21,753	24,239	2,224	824	666	1,637
35—44 ...	22,097	22,311	20,102	19,213	1,001	94	994	3,004
45—54 ...	16,220	17,116	14,344	12,365	430	64	1,449	4,687
55—64 ..	10,071	11,922	8,258	6,715	189	30	1,624	4,577
65—74 ...	5,150	6,326	3,717	2,809	82	20	1,351	3,398
75 and over	2,162	2,764	1,297	880	40	8	825	1,676
age not stated.	206	397	99	230	75	52	32	115

From the above table it can be deduced that the major marriageable age in the district is between 15—24 and 24—34 and the percentage of child marriage is negligible.

Religion.

Population by religion as enumerated in 1951 census is given in the following table :—

			Male.	Female.
Hindus	...	...	1,552,432	1,590,003
Sikhs	...	...	431	63
Jains	...	...	10	4

			Male.	Female.
Buddhists	...	...	15	6
Muslims	...	...	207,731	199,854
Christians	...	...	131	59

Thus from the above table it is seen that the great bulk of the inhabitants are Hindus, who with a total of 3,142,435 persons account for 89.2 per cent of the population and next to the Hindus are Muhammadans (407,585).

Language and literature.

Dr Grierson's views quoted by O'Malley and reproduced earlier probably cannot be accepted in toto in view of the recent research and the growth of literature in the regional language in Muzaffarpur district. But it does not appear to be necessary to enter into a scholastic discussion regarding the views of Dr. Grierson in this book. Vernacular literature has had a tremendous progress and there have been quite a number of Hindi writers of prominence in this district.

Principal castes.

In the section 'Principal Castes' O'Malley's observations regarding the castes have been omitted deliberately. Some of the observations are far too sweeping and do not appear to have been justifiable even when O'Malley wrote. It will be preposterous to agree that any particular caste should have a bias for litigation or a propensity for unsocial activities.

The main castes remain as they were mentioned by O'Malley. It may be mentioned that in 1951 census there has been no enumeration on caste basis and hence the present strength of the population of the different castes cannot be given.

The addition of the displaced persons from Pakistan either from the East or from the West is another change in the population of the district. According to the census of 1951, the number of displaced persons was 735. Since 1951 there may have been some additions to this population of the displaced persons.

APPENDIX

Statistics

TABLE I.

Decennial average of annual rainfall in inches (Muzaffarpur district).

Rain registering stations in the district.	1901—10.	1911—20.	1921—30.	1931—40.	1941—50.	Normal rainfall in inches.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Pipri ..	44.26	49.34	47.69	48.91	71.51 (*b*)	47.39
Raghopur ..	..	43.60 (*f*)	35.33	33.69	30.53 (*x*)	37.57
Minapore ..	..	45.78 (*f*)	44.06	45.06	36.97	44.92
Katra ..	..	51.15 (*g*)	47.17	51.34	53.58	50.10
Lalganj ..	..	42.96 (*e*)	41.15	38.72	32.30	41.42
Sursand ..	..	42.77	49.77 (*g*)	43.98	35.11 (*c*)	45.49
Sonbarsa ..	..	45.17 (*g*)	46.08	47.64 (*g*)	54.29 (*b*)	47.82
Bairagnia .	..	55.66 (*g*)	52.78 (*g*)	56.06	62.81 (*c*)	52.79
Belsand ..	..	38.73 (*c*)	54.06 (*f*)	48.49	45.00 (*f*)	48.16
Sitamarhi ..	54.26	54.97	62.31	53.81	48.70	52.71
Muzaffarpur .	45.35	44.00 (*c*)	44.58	50.72	48.39	48.44
Hajipur ..	42.37	48.53	39.45	42.53	39.44	44.23
Paru ..	38.62 (*g*)	37.86 (*g*)	34.59	39.57	36.12 (*a*)	41.45
Mahua ..	42.67	49.37 (*d*)	40.75	47.16	47.94	45.84
Sheobar ..	39.79	41.63 (*g*)	49.12	58.71 (*g*)	64.22 (*f*)	46.14

[Out of 18 rain-registering stations in the district 15 have been considered here.]

(*x*) Data for 3 years.
(*a*) Data for 1 year.
(*b*) Data for 4 years.
(*c*) Data for 5 years.
(*d*) Data for 6 years.
(*e*) Data for 7 years.
(*f*) Data for 8 years.
(*g*) Data for 9 years.

TABLE II-A.

Area and population of Muzaffarpur district.

District and subdivision.	Area in square miles.	Number of— Towns.	Villages.	Population in 1951. Urban.	Rural.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Number of houses occupied.	Number of persons per square mile.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Muzaffarpur District ..	3,018	6	4,171	1,35,696	33,85,043	35,20,739	17,30,750	17,89,989	5,80,637	1,167
Sadar subdivision ..	1,222	1	N. A.	73.594	13,03,587	13,77,161	6,82,951	6,94,230	N. A.	1,128
Hajipur subdivision ..	786	3	N. A.	46,757	8,95,715	9,42,472	4,56,295	4,86,177	N. A.	1,201
Sitamarhi subdivision ..	1,007	2	N. A.	15,345	11,85,741	12,01,086	5,91,504	6,09,582	N. A.	1,191

TABLE II-B.

District and subdivision.	Population at the previous Census. 1881.	1891.	1901.	1911.	1921.	1931.	1941.	Percentage of variation 1901 to 1951.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Muzaffarpur District ..	25,82,060	27,12,857	27,56,130	28,45,514	27,54,945	29,41,025	32,44,651	27·74
Sadar Subdivision ..	10,19,635	10,74.382	10,51,367	10,81,475	10,47,046	11,21,033	12,47,830	30.09
Hajipur Subdivision ..	7,24,531	7,14,079	7,18,181	7,10,300	6,56,002	6,95,690	8,21,893	31.23
Sitamarhi Subdivision ..	8,37,894	9,24,396	9,86,582	10,53,739	10,51,897	11,24,302	11,74.928	21.74

N. A.—Not available.

TABLE II-C.

Population of towns of Muzaffarpur district.

Years.		Muzaffarpur.	Hajipur.	Sitamarhi.	Lalganj.	Mahanar-bazar.	Dumra.
1		2	3	4	5	6	7
TOTAL POPULATION—							
1872	..	38,241	22,306	3,042	12,338	..	..
1881	..	42,460	25,078	6,125	16,431	..	..
1891	..	49,192	21,487	8,715	12,493	..	..
1901	..	45,617	21,398	9,538	11,502	..	..
1911	..	43,668	19,223	10,122	9,074	..	..
1921	..	32,755	16,760	10,532	7,148	..	..
1931	..	43,049	19,299	10,701	9,192	..	..
1941	..	54,139	21,963	12,437	9,481	..	..
1951	..	73,594	25,149	13,267	12,394	9,214	2,078
MALES—							
1872	..	21,749	10,737	1,720	5,913	..	..
1881	..	22,802	11,564	3,439	7,631	..	..
1891	..	27,165	9,917	5,075	5,583	..	..
1901	..	24,465	9,687	5,348	5,233	..	..
1911	..	23,836	9,409	5,787	4,171	..	..
1921	..	18,201	8,129	5,943	3,391	..	..
1931	.	25,050	9,936	6,255	4,676	..	..
1941	..	31,540	11,050	7,061	4,609	..	..
1951	..	42,341	12,723	7,295	6,053	4,241	1,260
FEMALES—							
1872	..	16,492	11,569	1,322	6,425	..	..
1881	..	19,658	13,514	2,686	8,800	..	..
1891	..	22,027	11,570	3,640	6,910	..	..
1901	..	21,152	11,711	4,190	6,269	..	..
1911	..	19,832	9,814	4,335	4,903	..	..
1921	..	14,554	8,631	4,589	3,757	..	..
1931	..	17,999	9,363	4,446	4,516	..	..
1941	..	22,699	10,913	5,376	4,872	..	..
1951	..	31,253	12,426	5,972	6,341	4,973	818

TABLE II-D.

Population according to Religion of Muzaffarpur district.

Census year.	Total population.		Hindu.		Sikh.		Jain.		Buddhist.		Zoroastrian (Parsee).	
	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1921	13,24,991	14,29,954	11,64,961	12,43,230	..	..	11	16	..	..	2	..
1931	14,43,847	14,97,178	12,58,489	12,90,517	13	5	2	7	1	..	2	4
1941	15,84,279	16,60,372	13,83,040	14,33,812	123	7	10	..	4	..	10	4
1951	17,30,750	17,89,989	15,22,432	15,90,003	431	63	10	4	15	6	..	..

Census year.	Muhammadan.		Christian.		Animist.		Others.		Tribal.		Jews.	
	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
1	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25
1921	1,59,593	1,86,310	422	397	2	1	..	..	..	..	..	..
1931	1,84,852	2,06,239	481	406	..	..	1	..	6	..	..	..
1941	1,99,479	2,25,318	425	395	..	..	..	.	1,163	833	25	3
1951 . ..	2,07,731	1,99,854	131	59	..	..	..	..	..		..	..

TABLE III-A.

Agricultural Statistics of the Muzaffarpur district.

Area in acres

Years.	Winter rice.	Autumn rice.	Wheat.	Barley.	Maize.	Gram.	Linseed.	Til.	Rape and Mustard.	Sugar-cane.	Arhar.	Jute.	Tobacco.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1943-44 ..	6,97,300	64,000	1,29,500	3,01,600	1,52,800	1,29,900	31,300	500	21,800	36,800	6,500	3,800	52,100
1944-45 ..	5,96,900	53,100	1,29,500	2,25,200	1,54,300	1,33,300	29,200	500	22,200	30,500	6,500	3,900	52,700
1945-46 ..	5,92,600	53,100	1,30,500	2,25,200	1,53,900	1,33,300	29 000	400	22,100	30,600	6,500	3,900	52,700
1946-47 ..	5,92,600	53,300	1,39,500	2,25 200	1,53,800	1,33,300	29,200	500	22,100	30,500	6,500	3,900	52,700
1947-48 ..	5,92.300	53,000	1,40,500	2,25,200	1,53,800	1,15,500	26,500	600	43,200	30,500	4,000	3,900	52,700
1948-49 ..	6,02,600	53,000	1,30,700	2,25,200	1,53,800	1,33,300	18,100	500	31,000	27,200	6,500	3,900	52,700
1949-50 ..	8,54,089	53,421	1,30,822	1,53,769	1,79,455	51,670	44,154	53	11,143	30,549	41,453	5,593	16,461
1950-51 ..	8,14,605	50,430	1,16,781	1,41,047	1,57,204	33,975	33,055	101	13,728	36,076	44,817	6,647	12,747
1951-52 ..	8,84,782	51,390	1,15,041	1,38,213	1,66,126	37,629	44,681	104	12,647	22,223	54,588	3,642	12,065
1952-53 .	8,31,324	64,555	1,01,323	1,57,075	1,85,499	43,926	52,978	250	16,855	29,538	55,671	6,976	11,546
1953-54 ..	5,34,190	51,124	1,43,542	1,80,036	1,92,667	38,051	45,472	224	10,458	28,192	34,668	4,047	8,569

TABLE III-B.

Agricultural Statistics of the Muzaffarpur district.

Produce in tons (except in case of Jute which is given in bales).

Years.	Winter rice.	Autumn rice.	Wheat.	Barley.	Maize.	Gram.	Linseed.	Til.	Rape and mustard.	Sugarcane raw (gur).	Arhar.	Jute.	Tobacco.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1943-44 ..	2,12,605	15,611	38,247	98,854	46,588	42,577	3,467	72	3,756	30,544	..	8,233	18,011
1944-45 ..	2,19,269	7,802	57,086	88,931	37,977	52,640	3,234	72	5,709	30,500	..	8,450	21,950
1945-46 ..	1,45,852	10,455	47,747	88,931	37,878	52,640	3,979	52	4,717	30,600	..	6,580	21,950
1946-47 ..	1,45,852	10,495	47,747	68,931	18,644	52,640	4,006	65	4,717	30,600	..	8,536	21,950
1947-48 ..	1,43,852	10,436	47,747	88,931	37,854	52,640	4,006	65	4,717	30,500	..	8,536	21,950
1948-49 ..	2,21,363	10,436	47,820	98,931	37,854	43,691	4,006	65	6,616	27,200	..	8,536	21,950
1949-50 ..	2,44,514	19,336	29,219	28,356	35,843	8,959	5,548	7	1,446	23,650	..	11,483	5,400
1950-51 ..	1,21,386	13,622	17,932	34,197	36,555	4,967	2,477	17	1,629	41,774	..	9,558	2,552
1951-52 ..	2,05,241	9,065	17,257	16,350	41,762	6,838	4,235	10	1,264	38,734	..	4,660	6,537
1952-53 ..	2,46,630	8,832	11,911	23,888	40,817	9,746	6,228	23	2,031	26,814	11,677	9,487	5,789
1953-54 ..	1,35,660	13,790	50,884	41,004	24,920	4,622	4,711	19	1,202	21,748	8,749	2,306	2,654

TABLE IV.

Consumption of principal intoxicant in Muzaffarpur district.

Year.	Consumption of— Country spirit (L. P. gallons.)	Ganja.		Bhang.		Opium.		
1	2	3		4		5		
		Md.	sr.	Md.	sr.	Md.	sr.	ch.
1912-13	27,569	130	30	3	3	31	11	0
1913-14	38,449	149	26	2	37	28	22	0
1914-15	34,551	201	1	2	28	28	22	0
1915-16	30,733	87	20	2	37	18	3	0
1916-17	57,943	134	3	4	1	19	28	0
1917-18	68,736	118	20	2	33	18	32	0
1918-19	79,311	118	21	3	15	14	20	0
1919-20	89,232	108	17	2	30	14	22	0
1920-21	55,157	111	5	1	27	13	28	0
1921-22	34,528	86	24	1	15	12	13	0
1922-23	45,740	108	8	1	10	13	2	0
1923-24	38,747	63	20	1	0	9	16	0
1924-25	34,185	81	36	2	7	10	25	0
1925-26	35,896	86	2	3	4	10	2	0
1926-27	36,254	67	4	3	3	10	23	0
1927-28	36,241	71	0	2	18	10	20	0
1928-29	35,457	65	38	2	27	10	34	0
1929-30	32,952	69	20	2	22	11	2	0
1930-31	16,020	44	9	1	32	10	9	0
1931-32	18,298	36	13	1	2	9	11	0
1932-33	19,207	33	6	1	5	8	10	0
1933-34	20,602	41	18	1	3	8	16	0
1934-35	25,699	44	29	1	12	8	39	0
1935-36	29,349	55	21	1	26	9	16	0
1936-37	24,433	..		..		..		
1937-38	26,446	43	35	4	17	7	35	0
1938-39	25,950	43	21	4	20	7	23	0
1939-40	18,887	18	20	1	38	4	23	0
1940-41	19,996	..		1	32	4	29	0
1941-42	22,233	17	19	1	37	4	17	0
1942-43	28,740	17	21	1	30	4	23	0
1943-44	44,661	31	21	2	4	5	30	0
1944-45	48,369	29	2	2	5	5	21	0
1945-46	51,749	30	16	3	9	6	37	0
1946-47	59,919	37	7	4	3	10	4	0
1947-48	46,740	34	12	3	21	4	27	0
1948-49	32,748	35	13	4	19	4	4	8
1949-50	27,378	23	29	5	24	3	23	8
1950-51	40,452	27	25	6	30	3	17	8
1951-52	36,088	27	0	9	23	2	21	8
1952-53	29,432	17	10	10	20	1	23	8
1953-54	25,324	12	5	10	27	1	11	8

TABLE V.

Population in Jail in Muzaffarpur district.

Period.	Convict.		Under-trial.		Security.		Total population.
	Ordinary.	Political.	Ordinary.	Political.	Class I.	Class III.	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1943 ..	1,803	..	2,886	..	..	..	4,689
1944 ..	1,385	..	1,380	..	..	62	2,827
1945 ..	1,452	..	1,260	..	..	14	2,726
1946 ..	978	..	1,026	..	..	..	2,004
1947 ..	844	..	1,510	..	..	7	2,361
1948 ..	1,597	..	2,473	..	..	61	4,131
1949 ..	1,487	..	2,376	..	7	23	3,893
1950 ..	1,283	..	1,942	.	1	2	3,228
1951 ..	920	..	1,992	..	2	5	2,919
1952 ..	1,696	..	1,642	..	..	..	3,338
1953 ..	1,681	..	1,544	..	..	..	3,225

N. B.—The above figures are the total admission of prisoners during the period noted above.

TABLE VI.

Epidemiological Statistics of Muzaffarpur district.

Year.	Cholera.		Plague.		Small-pox.		Number of inoculation performed.		Number of vaccination.	
	Attacks.	Deaths.	Attacks.	Deaths.	Attacks.	Deaths.	Anti-Cholera.	Anti-Plague.	Primary.	Re-vaccination.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1937 .. .	2,905	1,653	Nil	..	286	63	7,309	6,076	1,04,683	24,157
1938	1,659	878	353	307	725	127	5,506	9,420	1,01,939	66,146
1939	1,326	635	152	112	929	206	1,983	7,188	1,14,646	1,03,259
1940	1,382	705	92	53	327	46	18,503	1,960	1,10,037	2.48,314
1941	10,714	6,236	18	10	592	91	1,30.292	951	1,03,662	2,23,256
1942 .. .	1,254	622	38	22	207	45	25,271	976	1,03,882	1,62,830
1943	4,512	2,644	Nil	Nil	93	18	1,32,380	No plague	1,22,403	69,675
1944	..	37,997	Nil	Nil	535	135	5,88,330	Ditto	1,06,252	93,030
1945	3,343	1,915	Nil	Nil	1,378	359	3,27,846	Ditto	77,206	1,35,491
1946	..	13,391	Nil	Nil	277	77	9,72,051	Ditto	76,305	1,26,152
1947	704	377	Nil	Nil	141	21	1,91,740	Ditto	1,04,228	2.32,236
1948	..	6,389	Nil	Nil	294	32	7,42,333	Ditto	1,14,642	1,63,842
1949	160	85	Nil	Nil	96	6	45,906	Ditto	1,21,309	1,11,286
1950 .. .	1,416	868	Nil	Nil	34	6	5,75,840	Ditto	1,10,607	1,05,914
1951	49	18	Nil	Nil	1,036	171	2,68,688	Ditto	1,01,835	4,12,295
1952	412	198	Nil	Nil	518	49	1,31,845	Ditto	66,265	2,39,377
1953	1,142	598	Nil	Nil	184	9	5,66,087	Ditto	90,896	2,94,202

TABLE VII.

Factories in the district of Muzaffarpur registered under the Factories Act, 1948.

District.	Description of factory.	Number of factories.	Employees (average number of workers).		Total.
			Male.	Female.	
1	2	3	4	5	6
Muzaffarpur	General and Jobbing Engineering.	3	638	..	638
	Rice Mills	32	816	58	874
	Sugar Mills ..	3	2,627	..	2,627
	Oil Mills	5	61	..	61
	Cold Storage ..	1	19	..	19
	Tobacco	4	63	..	63
	Hosiery	7	68	..	68
	Wood and Cork except Furniture.	4	34	..	34
	Printing Presses ..	2	20	..	20
	Cutlery Works ..	1	10	.	10
	Metal Containers ..	1	11	..	11
	Ice Factories	6	6	..	6
	Electric Light and Power	4	48	..	48
	Bricks and Tiles ..	1	83	..	83
	Wrapping, Packing, Filling, etc. (Petrol).	1	41	..	41
	Flour Mills ..	56	185	..	185
	Dal Mills	1	3	..	3

N. B.—These figures were collected in 1954.

TABLE VIII-A.

Livestock population of Muzaffarpur district.

Year of Census.	Cattle.				Buffaloes.				Sheep.	Goats.
	Male.	Female.	Young stock or calves.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Young stock or calves.	Total.		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1920	3,60,702	2,85,554	2,03,802	8,50,058	10.042	1,30,557	90,768	2,31,367	24,186	3,40,255
1925	3.86,327	2,79,237	1.95.122	8,60,686	8,886	1,37,454	87,772	2,34,112	22,097	5,28,975
1930	3,86,868	2,81,240	2,04,750	8,72,858	10,732	1,38,896	92.226	2,41,854	20,769	5,84,325
1940	3,34,319	1,55,375	1,48,449	6,38.143	3.233	1,25,265	74,422	2,02,920	17,282	3,32,701
1945	3,64,641	1,73,846	1,46,877	6,79,364	9,990	1,22,005	78,806	2,10,801	10,823	2,78,537
1951	3.88,110	2,05,100	1,90,625	7,83,844	9,483	1,24,234	69,053	2,02,770	10,188	4,23,634

TABLE VIII-B.

Livestock mortality in the district of Muzaffarpur (for bovine population only).

Year.	Rinder-pest.	Haemorhagic Septicaemia.	Black quarter.	Anthrax.	Foot and Mouth diseases.	Other diseases.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1920-21 ..	..	174	57	..	4	..
1921-22 ..	133	..	..	..	..	..
1922-23 ..	41	490	26	..	3	70
1923-24 ..	17	104	27	..	..	..
1924-25 ..	487	279	33	..	..	2
1925-26 ..	96	262	27	..	6	..
1926-27 ..	41	256	38	..	12	7
1927-28 ..	19	430	393	..	4	..
1928-29 ..	7	659	383	..	..	1
1929-30 ..	55	527	253	..	4	10
1930-31 ..	43	109	107	..	2	11
1931-32 ..	1	414	70	..	..	22
1932-33 ..	89	131	57	..	2	38
1933-34 ..	106	108	11	..	1	15
1934-35 ..	39	61	..	..	..	667
1935-36 ..	57	43	10	..	3	98
1936-37 ..	3	59	43	..	3	139
1937-38 ..	160	259	175	..	4	173
1938-39 ..	..	311	835	..	..	
1939-40 ..	..	275	137	..	2	7
1940-41 ..	..	143	217	10	2	11
1941-42 ..	..	117	..	1	..	265
1942-43 ..	32	143	56	1	..	9
1943-44 ..	6	86	60	..	..	7
1944-45 ..	43	90	12	27	..	6
1945-46 ..	4	650	..	..	7	80
1946-47 ..	..	136	..	..	2	27
1947-48 ..	22	102	..	..	3	..
1948-49 ..	..	42	..	..	1	2
1949-50 ..	6	387	..	..	6	104
1950-51 ..	..	163	100	..	4	..
1951-52 .	..	48	52	..	..	1
1952-53 ..	..	230	161	..	..	..
1953-54 ..	56	487	247	2	..	..

TABLE IX.

Livelihood Classes by Educational Standards in 1951 in Muzaffarpur district.

Educational Standard.	AGRICULTURAL CLASSES.							
	Cultivators of land wholly or mainly owned and their dependants.		Cultivators of land wholly or mainly unowned and their dependants.		Cultivating labourers and their dependants.		Non-cultivating owners of land, Agricultural rent receivers and their dependants.	
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Literate	1,19,145	26,776	15,574	4,804	22,209	5,415	2,654	1,632
Middle School ..	13,242	1,195	975	165	1,418	125	497	103
Matriculate.. ..	3,744	144	265	41	249	..	241	32
Intermediate ..	521	38	53	1	24	1	71	3
Degrees or Diplomas :—								
Graduate	400	19	14	12	17	..	71	..
Post-Graduate ..	63	3	3	..	1	..	18	2
Teaching	203	19	..	..	..	..	1	..
Engineering ..	6	..	..	..	..	..	2	..
Commerce	4	2	..	..	..	..	..	..
Agriculture ..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Veterinary .. .	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Legal	40	..	..	..	..	..	6	..
Medical	57	5	..	..	..	..	4	..
Others	1,104	13	163	4	202	1	22	1
TOTAL ..	1,38,530	28,214	17,047	5,027	24,120	5,542	3,587	1,773

NON-AGRICULTURAL CLASSES							
Production other than cultivation.		Commerce.		Transport.		Other services and miscellaneous sources.	
Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
5,338	1,189	9,607	2,729	1,574	323	19,588	6,650
404	96	844	167	104	60	2,665	425
135	14	328	57	93	10	1,837	130
28	1	63	11	19	..	618	39
15	1	51	8	18	..	515	21
3	..	2	1	4	..	109	4
17	..	14	3	40	3	946	36
..	..	..	..	..	..	47	..
1	..	..	..	2	..	32	..
..	..	..	..	..	..	5	..
..	..	..	..	..	..	2	..
1	..	..	..	..	..	113	..
1	..	3	3	..	..	257	7
8	4	424	2	52	..	302	12
5,951	1,305	11,426	2,981	1,906	396	27,036	7,324

TABLE X.

STATEMENT SHOWING THE AVERAGE PRICE OF LAND FOR THE LAST 30 YEARS IN THE DISTRICT OF MUZAFFARPUR.

(Source—Records of the office of the District Sub-Registrar.)

Year.		Average price of lands.		Remarks.
1927	...	Rs. 150 per bigha.		The average has been struck taking into account the totals of the documents registered and the bulk of the documents appertain to lands in the rural areas.
1928	...	Rs. 155	,,	
1929	...	Rs. 148	,,	
1930	...	Rs. 160	,,	
1931	...	Rs. 145	,,	
1932	...	Rs. 160	,,	
1933	...	Rs. 251	,,	
1934	...	Rs. 390	,,	
1935	...	Rs. 350	,,	
1936	...	Rs. 272	,,	
1937	..	Rs. 310	,,	
1938	...	Rs. 278	,,	
1939	...	Rs. 248	,,	
1940	...	Rs. 312	,,	
1941	...	Rs. 315	,,	
1942	...	Rs. 298	,,	
1943	...	Rs. 340	,,	
1944	...	Rs. 363	,,	
1945	...	Rs. 626	,,	
1946	...	Rs. 704	,,	
1947	...	Rs. 836	,,	
1948	...	Rs. 1,004	,,	
1949	...	Rs. 1,119	,,	
1950	...	Rs. 1,462	,,	
1951	...	Rs. 1,464	,,	
1952	...	Rs. 912	,,	
1953	...	Rs. 824	,,	
1954	...	Rs. 1,076	,,	
1955	...	Rs 932	,,	
1956	...	Rs. 871	,,	

TABLE XI.

LIST OF TOWNS AND VILLAGES ELECTRIFIED IN MUZAFFARPUR DISTRICT.

	Source of Power.
1. Muzaffarpur ...	Diesel Power House of local private licensee.
2. Hajipur ...	Government Diesel Power House at Hajipur.
3. Sarai ...	
4. Bhagwanpur ...	
5. Goroul ...	
6. Dighi ...	
7. Lalganj ...	
8. Mahua ...	
9 Prataptand ...	
10. Purantand ...	
11. Baghi ...	
12. Vaishali ...	
13. Chandanpatti ...	Government Diesel Power House at Samastipur.
14. Sundarpur Ratwara ...	
15. Bairgania ...	Government Diesel Power House at Bairgania.
16. Sitamarhi ...	
17. Motipur ...	Government Diesel Power House at Chakia.
18. Baijnathpur ...	
19. Sahebganj ...	

TABLE XII.

AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTS.

Wheat (Triticum vulgare or sativum), *gehun.*
Barley (Hordeum vulgare), *jau.*
Oats (Avena sativa), *jai.*

RICE.

Rice (Oryza sativa), *chaur.*

INDIAN CORN OR MAIZE.

Indian corn or maize (Zea mays), *makai.*
Jinora, millet (Holcus sorghum).

THE LARGE MILLET.

Large millet (Sorghum vulgare), *janera.*

THE SMALL BULRUSH MILLET.

(Pennisetum typhoideum), *bajra.*

THE SMALL MILLETS.

(Setaria italica), *tangun* or *kauni.*
(Panicum mileaceum), *china.*
Sawan (Echinochloa crus-galli, Var. frumentacea).
(Paspalum scrobiculatum), *kodo.*
Makra (Eleusine aegyptaca), (a kind of grass of which the seeds are eaten).

PULSES.

(Cajanus cajan), *rahar* or *rahri.*
(Phaseolus mungo), *mung.*
(Phaseolus roxburghii or Phaseolus radiatus), *urid.*
(Phaseolus aconitifolius), *moth.*
(Ervum hirsutum or Vicia hirsuta) (one variety of vicia).
(Lens esculenta), *masur.*
Kurthi (Dolichos biflorus), *khesari* (Lathyrus sativus), *bhent* or *bhent-wans.*

PEAS.

Peas (Pisum sativum), *matar.*

GRAM.

Gram (Cicer arietinum), *bunt.*

SUGARCANE.

Sugarcane (Saccharum officinarum), *ketari.*

COTTON.

The cotton-tree (Gossypium herbaceum), *banga.*

TOBACCO.

Tobacco (Nicotiana tabacum), *tamaku*.

OPIUM POPPY.

Opium poppy (Papaver somniferum), *posta*.

HEMP.

The hemp plant (Cannabis sativa), *ganja*.

INDIGO.

Indigo (Indigofera tinctoria), *lil* or *nil*.

OTHER DYES.

Al (Morinda tinctoria), *salu*.
Safflower (Carthamus tinctorius), *kusum*.

OILSEEDS.

Mustard (Brassica campestris or Sinapis dichotoma), *sarison*.
Mustard (Brassica juncea or Sinapis ramosa), *lahi* or *rai*.
Sesamum (Sesamum orientale or indicum), *til*.
Linseed (Linum usitatissimum), *tisi*,
Safflower (Carthamus tinctorius), *kusum*.
Castor-oil plant (Ricinus communis), *renr*.
(Bassia latifolia) *mahu* or *mahua*.
(Celastrus paniculatus), *malkangni* or *dithaun*.
Croton (Croton tiglium), *jamal gota*.

FIBRES.

Hemp (Cannabis sativa), *ganja*.
San (Crotolaria juncea).
Patua, *kuturum* (Hibiscus sabdariffa).

BETEL.

Betel (Piper betel), *pan*,

EDIBLE ROOTS.

Potatoes (Solanum tuberosum or esculentum), *alu*.
Yams (Dioscorea sativa), *latar*.
Sweet potato (Ipomoea batatas), *sakarkand*.
Suthni, a kind of yam (Dioscorea fasciculata).
(Arum colocasia or Colocasia antiquorum), *arui*.

GOURDS.

The water-melon (Cucurbita citrullus or Citrullus vulgaris), *tarbuj*.
The melon (Cucumis utilatissimus or Cucumis melo), *kharbuja*.
(Cucumis momordica), *phunt*.
The bitter-gourd (Momordica charantia), *karaila*.
The bottle-gourd (Lagenaria vulgaris or Cucurbita lagenaria), *kadua*.

GOURDS—*concld.*

(Lagenaria acutangulus or Cucumis acutangulus), *taroi*.
Cucumber (Cucumis sativus), *khira*.
Kankri (Cucumis utiltissimus).
The sweet pumpkin (Cucurbita pepo), *konhra*.
Chichira or *chichura* (north of the Ganges), snake-gourd (Trichosanthes anguina), *kaita*.

MISCELLANEOUS VEGETABLES.

Ajmoda, parsley (Petro-selinum sativum or Opium involucratum).
Adrak, ginger (Zingiber officinale).
Cabbage (Brassica olereacea), *karamkalla*.
Kalmi sag, the tops of (Ipomoea reptens).
Kasni, endive (Cichorium endivia).
Kahu (Patna and Gaya), a kind of lettuce (Lactuca sativa).
Bean (Meccuna pruriens), *kawachh*.
Kobi, cabbage (Brassica oleracea).
Kath, catechu (Acacia catechu).
Gajar, carrot (Daucus carota).
Genhari (Amaranthus frumentaceus).
Chansur, a kind of cress (Lepidum sativum).
(Ligusticum ajowain and Ptychotis ajowan), *jawain*.
Jira (Cuminum cyminum)
Dhaniyan, coriander (Coriandrum sativum).
Parol (Trichosanthes dioica), (Roxb).
Palaki or *palanki*, spinach (Spinacea oleracea).
Piyaj, the onion (Allium cepa).
Mint (Mentha sativa or viridis), *podina*.
Phulkobi, the cauliflower (Brassica olereacea).
Bilaeti patua, roselle (Hibscus sabdariffa).
The egg-plant (Solanum melongena), *baigan*.
(Hibiscus esculentus), *bhindi* or *ram taroi*.
Gooseberry, or tiparee (Physalis peruviana), *makoe*.
(Capsicum fastigiatum), *mirich*.
(Piper nigrum), *gol mirich*.
Bird's eye pepper (Capsicum baccatum), *longwa maricha*.
The radish (Raphanus sativus), *mulli*.
Garlic (Allium sativum), *lahsun*.
Saphgol (Plumbago isabghola).
Salgam and *saljam*, the turnip (Brassica rapa).
Singhara, the water-caltrop (Trapa bispinosa or nataus).
Sim, a bean (Phaseolus magnus).
Sahjana, the horse-radish tree (Moringa oleifera).
Saumph, a kind of aniseed (Peucedanum graveolens or Anethum sowa).
Hardi (Curcuma longa).

GLOSSARY

GLOSSARY.

Abwab ... ... An illegal imposition on the tenant by the landlord. The term *abwab* has nowhere been defined in the Bihar Tenancy Act but section 74 of the said Act mentions that " all impositions upon tenants under the denominations of *abwab* shall be illegal and all stipulations and reservations for the payment of such shall be void. "

Aghani .. ... Crops which are harvested in the winter month of *Aghan*. *Aghan* is the 9th month of Hindu calendar.

Amil ... ... Rent collector.

Asan ... ... Posture.

Bahera ... ... The fruits of *Bahera* tree are used for medicine.

Bakast .. ... The tenant's lands in temporary possession of landlords are known as *bakast* land. Such land originally belonged to the tenant but came into the possession of the landlords by sale for arrears of rent, surrender, abandonment or the like. The village tenant has preferential claim to the settlement of lands of this category. A settled tenant of a village gets occupancy rights in such lands as soon as the same are held by him. In areas where the Bihar Tenancy Act, 1885 prevails, a tenant whether a settled tenant or not, but with whom such land is settled, gets a right of occupancy therein, if the total of such lands in possession of the landlord exceeds 40 acres.

Bande Mataram ... National Anthem of India composed by Shri Bankim Chandra Chatterji, a famous Bengali novelist.

Bandh ... ... Embankment.

Basant Panchmi ... It is a festival which is celebrated on the 5th bright day of *Magh* that is 11th month of Hindu calendar to mark the advent of spring.

Basia ... ... Stale food.

Bhadai ... ... Autumn crops.

Bhatottar ... ... Bhats were the professional songsters and entertainers and for their services rent-free lands were given to them.

Bhauli ... ... Rent paid in kind, produce rent.

Bhukti ... ... Division, a big administrative unit, during Hindu period.

Bhunja ... ... Fried corn,

Bigha ... ... A particular measure of land which is approximately 5/8th of an acre.

Brahmi ... ... A script prevalent in ancient India.

Brahmottar ... A rent-free property granted to Brahmans for performing priestly function.

Chaudhuries ... Headmen of the villages.

Chaukidar ... Village watchman.

Chura ... ... Parched flattened rice.

Dafadar ... ... Village constabulary whose rank is superior to Chaukidar.

Dai ... ... Midwife.

Dargah ... ... Tomb of the Muslim saints.

Dastur ... ... Customary allowance given to native officer (*Amil*), besides salary

Dauhitra ... ... Daughter's-son.

Devottar ... ... A rent-free land granted for the maintenance of Hindu shrines and temples, dedicated to a God.

Dhar ... ... Channel.

Dharamshala ... A charitable institution, a rest house for sojourners.

Diara ... ... Formation of soil due to deposits of clay by the river.

Durrie ... ... Carpet.

Fakirana ... ... Rent-free land granted to Muslim mendicants for their spiritual services.

Farmans ... ... King's orders or warrants.

Ghats ... ... Stairs made for bathing in a river or tank.

Ghee ... ... Clarified milk butter.

Gita ... ... A sacred scripture for Hindus.

Goladar ... ... Keeper of the grain store-house.

Guru ... ... Preceptor.

Halka ... ... A division consisting of several villages.

Hathia ... ... There are 27 *nakshatras* according to Hindu Calendar which are calculated according to phase of the moon. *Hathia* is one of them.

Hookah ... ... Hubble-bubble.

Jagir ... ... A royal grant of rent-free land in recognition for certain services.

Jalkar ... ... A tax levied on water-produce, such as, fishery.

Jama Wasul-Baky ... An account of rent in which total rent along with realised and outstanding rent is recorded.

Kababs ... ... A hot spicy meat preparation.

Kabuliat ... ... An agreement which the tenant gives to landlord while taking settlement of lands.

Kalasa ... ... A sacred water-pot.

Katcha weights ... Non-standard weight.

Kharif ... ... Autumn crops.

Kheer ... ... A sweet preparation of milk and rice.

Kistbandi ... ... An arrangement for payment by instalment.

Kothi ... ... A bungalow or store-house.

Lakhraj ... ... Revenue-free property.

Linga ... ... Phallus.

Litti ... ... A food preparation of flour and other ingredients.

Lota ... ... Water pot.

Madad-a-mash ... Maintenance grant.

Maidan ... ... Open field.

Malamas ... ... Intercalary month.

Makhtab ... ... Urdu school.

Masjid ... ... Mosque.

Math ... ... A sacred Hindu institution founded by Shankaracharyya to propagate the doctrine of monism.

Mauza ... ... Village.

Mela ... ... Fair.

Miranji-ki-Dargah ... Tomb of Miranji.

Morabbas ... ... A sweet preserve of fruits and vegetables.

Mukarari ...	... Tenure held in perpetuity at a fixed rent or at fixed rates.
Nankar ...	... Grant of land in lieu of cash remuneration.
Newar ...	... Textile fabric used for cots.
Oraha ...	... An indigenous baked preparation of half dried cropped plants, such as of gram, peas and wheat.
Pakorah ...	... An indigenous fried preparation.
Pargana ...	... A fiscal unit consisting of several villages.
Puranas ...	... Sacred books of the Hindus.
Pyne ...	... Artificial channel made for irrigation purpose.
Rabi ...	... Spring crops, such as, wheat, gram, peas, etc.
Raiyats ...	... Tenants.
Salami ...	... Payment made to the landlord when settlement is granted for mutation.
Sarai ...	... Inn, where people can stay without any payment till a certain period.
Sarkar ...	... A bigger unit of *Pargana* often taken as a district in the earlier days of British administration.
Sattu ...	... Powder of fried corn consumed raw with condiments.
Sevasram ...	... An institution dedicated to the service of mankind.
Shikar ...	... Hunting.
Shivottar ...	... A rent-free property granted for the maintenance of the temple of Lord Shiva.
Stupa ...	... Buddhistic construction for keeping holy relics.
Subah ...	... Province.
Sudbharna	... Usufructuary mortgage.
Sudi ...	... Bright part of the month.
Swadeshi ...	... *Swadeshi* movement was launched in Bengal in 1905 to discard foreign-made goods.
Tahsil ...	... Realisation of rent.
Talukdars ...	... Tenure-holder.
Tankas ...	... A coin prevalent in mediaeval India.
Tantrik ...	... A sect of Hinduism and later Buddhism.
Tarai ...	... Valley.
Tari ...	... Toddy (fermented juice of palm tree).

Thakurbari ...	Temple.
Tirthankaras ...	The sanctified saints of Jains. There were 24 of them, the last being **Mahavira** Vardhamana.
Trishula	A trident associated with Lord Shiva.
Vesali Anusamyanaka Takare.	Out-post watch of Vaisali.
Vishnuprit ...	Rent-free property granted for the maintenance of the temple of Lord Vishnu.
Zarpeshgi	Money given in advance for cultivable lands.
Zirat	Land in personal cultivation of the proprietor (Zamindar) for a continuous period of 12 years.

INDEX.

	Pages.
Abolition of Zamindari ...	31, 35, 47, 56, 195
Abwabs	52
Adauri	4
Adhwara	4, 58, 66, 168, 171
Administration Report 1876-77	156
Agrarian Act	125
Agrarian Laws	193
Agriculture	58—64
Agricultural Income-tax ...	210
Agricultural Labourers ...	68
Agriculturist Loans Act ...	193
Ain-i-Akbari	11
Ajatasatru	143-144
Akbar	185
Akbaraghat	170
Ali, Karim	154
Ali, Warris	154
Ambapali	143
Ambara Chauk	221
Amlas	52
Ananda	143-144
Anchals	45
Anguttara Nikaya ...	142
Arbitration Board ...	194
Arboriculture	182
Archaeological Remains ...	161—163
Area	46
Arthur Butler and Co. ...	54
Asamiwar system ..	158, 259
Asoka	144
Asoka Pillar at Koluha ...	161
Assistant Sessions Judge ...	208
Aurangzeb	185
Aviation	188
Avifauna	11—16
Baghmati, the	2—4, 7, 9, 51, 58, 66, 148, 168-169
Baghmati, Tributaries of ...	4-5
Bairagania	17, 22, 25—27, 51, 67, 75-76, 221
Bajitpur	5
Bakast lands	56
Bakua *Nala*	168
Bar, the	44-45
Baraila-tal canal	8
Barley	61
Baruraj	51, 221
Basarh	142, 162
Basia	84
Basic education	89
Basic Training College, Turki ...	88
Bataidars	49-50
Batai system	244
Batesar Asthan	221
Bathurst, Mr.	150, 190
Baya	2, 5, 59, 66, 168
Bela	221
Belanpur *ghat*	4
Belsand	2, 22, 25, 27, 51, 221
Bengal Tenancy Act ...	48
Bhagavati sutra	142
Bhagwanpur	76
Bhairo Asthan	65
Bhajans	35
Bhang	218
Bharthua *Chaur*	168
Bhatulia	5
Bhauli lands	47—49
Bhikampur	261
Bibah Panchami ...	32-33, 117
Bihar Bakast Disputes Settlement Act, 1947.	56, 194
Bihar Earthquake, 1934 ...	6, 129, 160, 171 182
Bihar Management of Estates and Tenures Act.	194
Bihar Panchayat Raj Act, 1947	112
Bihar Planters' Association ...	156, 254, 260
Bihar Privileged Persons Homestead Tenancy Act, 1947.	56-57
Bihar Tenancy Act ...	48,193
Bimbisara	142-143
Birahama	241
Biri making	74
Bisahar	241
Blackney, Captain ...	153
Boiling and final preparation ...	257
Bomb case, 1908	159

	Pages.
Bose, Khudiram, Sri ...	45, 159, 229
Boundary	1
Bradshaw, Major	158
Brahmottar lands ...	47
Breeding	66
Bridges and culverts ...	123
Broadcasting	61
Buddha	142—144
Burhand	168
Burhi Gandak	1—5, 7—9, 58, 160, 170
Buxar	148
Cash Rents	245
Cattle fairs	65
Central Bank, Hajipur, Muzaffarpur.	92
Central Excise	219
Central Jail	205
Cess and Rent	46—50
Chaghta, Said Khan ...	163
Chaki, Profulla Chandra, Sri ...	45, 159
Chak Ramdas	221
Chandragupta I	144
Charaut	221, 241
Chaukidar	203
Chaura	2—5, 7, 51, 58, 65, 172
Chetaka	148
Chhath	92
Chitwara	5
Cholera	101
Civil Disobedience Movement	160
Civil Justice	206-207
Climate	17—30
Collegiate Education ...	80—84
Commercial spirit ...	218
Commercial taxes	210
Commissioner	159, 200
Common food stuff and cooking.	38—40
Communications ...	121—141
Community Projects ...	45
Condition of cultivation ...	51—53
Condition of Tenantry ...	192
Co-operative farming ...	56
Co-operative Health Association	98
Co-operative Inspector ...	31
Co-operative Institution ...	92
Cornwallis, Lord ...	186
Cowper, William	152
Crimes and Justice ...	158
Criminal Justice	207-208
Cultivation, extension of ...	68
Cultivation, Improved method of.	68
Dafadar	203
Daily life	31—45
Darbhanga-Muzaffarpur road ...	4
Darshan Das Mahila College, Mahanth	82, 232
Dasaratha	142
Dastur	185
Daudpur	53, 261
Daudpur embankment ...	174
Decennial Settlement ...	187
Deokali	222
Deoria	5, 261
Deva, Ganga	145-146
Deva, Hara Singha	146
Deva, Nanyupa	145
Deva, Narasingha	146
Deva, Rama Singha ...	146
Development work	196
Devottar lands	47
Dhaus, the	4
Dheng Railway station ...	9
Dholi *bandh*	170
Diara	60
Directory	221—248
District Board	109
District Magistrate ...	201-202, 207
District and Sessions Judge ...	207-208
Diwani	185
Doab, the	7, 9
Dress	37
Ducks	13—16
Dumra	4, 15
Dumra Notified Area Committee	118
Early History, Land Revenue Administration.	185
Economic condition of the people.	46—57
Education	70—91
Education, Administration of	80
Education, Organisation of ...	80
Education, Progress of ...	79
Electric Supply Co. ...	238
Electricity Duty ...	210, 212
Embankments	178
Enhancement of Rents ...	246
Entertainment-tax ...	210-211
European Planters ...	11, 48, 52
Excise	216
Factories Act	71
Fa-Hien	144—162

PAGES.

Famine ... ... 176—180
Famine, 1866, 1874 ... 177
Famine, 1896-97 178
Famine Prices 249
Famine and scarcity ... 176, 179
Fardo 168
Fauna ... ... 10—16
Fever 98
First Five-Year Plan ... 107
Fish 16
Floods 166-167
Flood control schemes ... 175
Food 40
Food crops 60
Free land grants 188
Gair-majarua am, *khas* lands ... 47
Gandak, the 7, 16, 51, 66, 166, 168, 172
Gandak Bridge 225
Gandak Embankment ... 8, 174
Gandak Project 67, 160, 181
Gandhi, Mahatma 45, 52, 69, 125, 159
Ganga, the ... ... 1—3, 5, 7, 16, 51, 54, 58, 142, 145, 166, 168, 171-172
Gangata 168, 172
Gangeyadeva 145
Ganja 217
Gautami 148
General Administration ... 200—220
General configuration ... 1
Geology 5-6
Ghaghara, the 168
Ghataro ghat 77
Ghosewat 5
Gogra, the 59
Gopala 145
Gopastami 82
Goraul 51, 71, 222
Goshalas 66
Gram 62
Gram Panchayat 31, 45, 112, 196, 208
Gram Sewak 31
Grand, Francois, Mr. ... 60, 149, 150, 186
Great World Wars I, II ... 54

PAGES.

Grey, W. 156
Hais ghat 15
Hajipur ... ... 3, 8, 20, 25—27, 50, 56, 60, 63, 67, 74, 77, 146, 185, 223
Hajipur Municipality ... 115
Hajipur Sarkar 148
Hajipur Subdivision ... 2, 49, 50, 51, 202, 222
Hajuri *Math* 225
Hardi 65, 241
Harha, the 5
Harauli 8
Harsha 145
Hazrat Jandaha 226
Health Assistant 31
Hieun Tsang 144, 161
History ... ... 142—165
Hobbies 40-41
Holmes, Major 154
Home for the Homeless ... 94
Home Guards 204
Horticulture 50, 75
Housing and Household ... 43-44
Humidity 19
Illias, Ghyasuddin ... 146
Illias, Haji 147
Income-tax 200
Indigo 68, 152, 155, 258
Indigo Planters' Association ... 248
Industries and Labour ... 54—57
Industrialisation, Recent ... 71
Industrial Commission, 1916 ... 71
Inoculation 101
Interesting Plants 10
Irrigation 66-67
Irrigation Act 198
Itharwa 4
Jagaddhara 146
Jail 204
Jail Reforms 205
Jain Prakrit Research Institute 91
Jaintpur 227, 241
Jaipur 65
Jajuar 241
Jalkar 48
Jama Masjid 224
Januara 169
Jandaha 8
Janta College 89

PAGES.

Japaha 71
Jataka 142
Jatra Parties 95
Jhulan 92
Juridih 228
Kabuliyat 45
Kafin 65
Kakavarni Kalasoka ... 141
Kala azar 102
Kalya ghat 4
Kamala, the 4
Kamtaul Jagdish 241
Kanishka 144
Kanti 51, 53, 228
Kanti *bandh* 170
Karamchari 31, 197
Karbala 226
Karnaul 3, 5, 22, 27, 261
Katkana 258
Katra ... ... 22, 25—27, 51, 229
Kennedy, Miss 159
Kennedy, Springle, Mr. ... 45
Khajuri 242
Khan, Azam 149
Khan, Daud 147-148
Khan, Mokhsus 168
Khan, Muzaffar 1, 282
Khan, Pardil Raja 283
Khan, Sher 117
Khari 6
Kharika *bandh* 170
Khesari 60-61, 68
Khuskpatta 257
Khushki Sattas 259
Kingsford, Mr. 159
Kirtans 85
Kolhua 289
Kondochates 8
Konhara ghat 77, 225, 230, 242
Kothi 124
Kotigrama 149
Kumara Devi 144
Kundapura 143
Kurtauli 258
Lahour Advisory Board ... 55
Lakhandai, the ... ... 3, 4, 58, 66, 168—170
Lakshamana 142
Lakshmana Sena era ... 145
Lal Bakaya, the 3-4, 58

PAGES.

Lalganj ... ... 8, 22, 25—27, 74, 77, 230
Lalganj Municipality ... 117
Land Improvement Act ... 199
Land Reforms Act 192, 194, 197
Land Reforms Section .. 196, 220
Land Revenue Administration 185—199
Land Tenure 47-48
Langat Singh College ... 80, 284
Large farms 51
Lassen, Mr. 3
Libraries 90
Lime Process 257
Little Gandak, the 5
Livestock ... ... 58, 64—66
Local Boards 111
Local ferries 131
Local Self-Government ... 100—120
Local Self-Government Act, 1923 109
Lodi, Sikandar 147
Magadha ... ... 142—144
Mahasanghikas 144
Mahasilakantakas 144
Mahavagga 148
Mahavira, Vardhamana ... 148, 162
Mahila Shilpa Kala Bhawan ... 93
Mahnar 51, 77, 231
Mahua 20, 24, 26, 242
Mahual 262
Mahuara 67
Maize 61
Majorganj 51
Malaria 98, 100, 170
Mankhap Rent 49
Mankhap system 50, 245
Manufacture 68, 256
Manures 255
Marua 61
Matala 231
Maternity and Child Welfare Centre. 104
Material condition of the people 249
Mathur, J. C. 240
Maurya 144
Medical Personal 105
Melas and fairs 32-36, 52, 76
Middle Schools 85
Mirapur *bandh* 170
Miscellaneous Departments ... 220
Miscellaneous factories, other ... 78

	Pages.
Misra, Vachaspati ...	146
Moore, Stevenson, Mr. ...	250
Morshead, Mr.	70
Motipur	5, 51, 53, 71, 282
Motipur *bandh*	170
Motor spirit-tax	210-211
Motor Transport Service ...	189
Mughal Period	147
Mukararidars	250
Mukarari leases	191
Munsifs	206
Muslim Influence	146
Muslim Invasion	145
Muzaffarpur	1, 20, 24, 26-27, 76, 182, 282
Bar	44-45
Club	94
Muzaffarpur-Pusa Road ...	170
Muzaffarpur-Sitamarhi Road ...	9
Nabhaga	142
Nagarbasti	5
Nankar	185
Nanpur	233
Narwa	8
Narayani river	8
Natal Indigo	256
National Highway ...	127
Natural Calamities ...	166—184
Natural configuration ...	58
Nepalese Incursions ...	152
New embankment	174
Non-Co-operation Movement ...	45, 160
Nonias	70-71
North Eastern Railway ...	3, 5, 185
Nutrition	93
Occupancy Holdings ...	50
Occupancy Tenure	47
Occupation	68, 74
Opium	151, 219
Ornaments	41
Other Diseases	102
Ottur	262
Ourai	4
Oxidation	257
Pairbikars	85
Pala dynasty	145
Pali	4
Palmaul	239
Panch Mahals	58
Panipat, Battle of	147
Parivrajak, Swami Satyadeva ...	281
Parihar	238
Partition of Estates	189
Parsauni	238, 242
Paru	20, 24, 26
Passengers and Goods Transport charge.	210, 212
Pastoral songs	41
Patepur *Asthan*	234
Payment of Rents	246
Permanent Settlement ...	11, 153, 187
Permanent Zamindari system...	47
Physical Aspects	1—16
Physical Education ...	98
Plague	101
Planters, the	45
Police	202-203
Polo meets	52
Population	53-54
Prasad, Rajendra, Dr. ...	67
Prices	218
Primary Education ...	87 88
Principal crops	60
Principal Diseases ...	98
Principal Roads	129
Private Irrigation Works Act ...	198
Produce rents	193, 244
Public Health	96—108
Public Health Organisation ..	105
Public Works Department ..	127
Pupri	20, 24, 26-27, 51
Purandhar	4, 66, 168-169
Pusa	5
Pusa, Sugar Research Institute	71
Pynes	67
Raghopur	7, 20, 24, 26, 51
Railways	185
Rainfall	17-18, 59
Raiyat	45, 47-49, 56, 190
Rajpara	234
Ramchaura	225, 242
Ram Dayalu Singh College ..	82, 232
Ramkrishna Vivekanand Sevasram.	93, 104
Ram Navami	32, 117
Rana Jung Bahadur, Sir .	224
Rasulpur	4
Rautinia	242
Registration	212
Reh	6
Relief Measures	183
Rent free tenures ...	191
Rent Reduction	193
Rest Houses	185
Revenue Council	185

PAGES.

Revenue, Rate of 180
Revenue Survey 189-190
Rewa *ghat* 73, 77
Rewah 242
Rice 60
Riga 71
River system 2
River Training scheme .. 178
Road Cess Committee ... 125-126
Road finances 132
Road maintenance, difficulties in 128
Roadways 127
Rotary Club 95
Roy, Sitab, Raja 185
Runisyadpur 51
Rupa Narain, Raja ... 147
Rusera 4
Sadanira 3
Sadar subdivision 50-51, 202
Sadua Patua 258
Sahebganj 5, 20, 25, 27, 284
Salami 49, 56
Sales-tax 210
Salt Department 70
Saltpetre .. ... 68—70
Salutation 87
Samudragupta 144
Sanitation 109
Sankara 146
Sapt Gandaki 3
Saraiya 5, 282
Sarkar Tirhut 121, 185, 200
Sarkhandi Bhita 284
Satta system 259
Satichaura 281
Scarcity, 1876, 1889, 1892 ... 178—180
Second Five-Year Plan ... 197
Secondary Education ... 84—87
Sena dynasty 145
Service Tenures 47
Shah, Ibrahim, Sultan ... 168
Shah, Mahmud 147
Shah, Nusrat 147
Shakra 284
Shaktas 82
Sham-Suddin Ilyas Shah Haji 163
Sharqi kings 147
Sheohar 20, 24, 26-27, 282
Shere, S. A. 240
Shore, Sir John 187
Shrikrishna Jubilee Law College 82, 282

PAGES

Sidharatha 143
Simraon 145
Singha, Kirti 146
Singh, Kuar 154
Singh, Ratan Man ... 155
Singhi Marha 168
Sitalpur Sugar Factory ... 71
Sitamarhi town 3, 4, 6, 65, 183, 285, 242
Sitamarhi Municipality ... 117
Sitamarhi subdivision .. 2, 11, 50, 55, 202, 284
Sita *Vivah* 82
Size of Estates 190
Small-pox 102
Snake Worship 43
Social Education Centres ... 90
Social Welfare ... ... 92—95
Soil 59, 255
Sonbarsa 22, 25-26, 51
Sonechiraiya 285
Sonepur *mela* 52, 56, 78, 224
Special schools 90
Spooner, Dr. 240
Steward, Charles 122
Stupa mound, Koluha .. 161
Subdivisional Officer ... 201
Subhagarh 286
Sudbharna 259
Sugaona dynasty 146
Sugarcane 62
Sugar Factories 209
Sumati 142
Superintendent of Police ... 202-203
Sursand 22, 25-26
Susta 65, 249
Survey and Settlement Operations. 192-193
Synthetic dye 158
Tal Baraila 9, 18
Tayler, W. 155
Tea and Smoking 40
Technical education ... 89
Tehwara 4
Temperature 18-19
Tenures 47, 191
Thakur, Kameshwar ... 146
Theravadins 144
Thikadari system ... 157, 249
Thikaha 262
Timber trade 75
Tinkathia 58

	Pages.
Tirabhukti	168
Tirhut Division	54, 159, 200
Tirhut Institute	74, 282
Tobacco	63
Todar Mal	185
Toilet	86
Town Club	95
Trade	68—78
Trade with Nepal	151
Transplantation	61
Tree Worship	43
Tribeni Canal system ...	67
Tribeni *Ghat*	8
Trisula	149
Tuberculosis	104
Tughlaq, Firuz Shah ...	146-147
Tughlaq, Ghyasuddin ...	145
Turki	237, 248
Turki embankment ...	2, 4, 167, 174
Under Tenures	191
Vaccination	102
Vaisali	142—144, 237—241

	Pages.
Vaisala, Raja	142
Vaishnavas	32
Vasanti Navaratri ...	32
Vegetation	7—10
Vehicular traffic	188
Veterinary aid	65
Videha	142-148
Vidyapati	146
Vital statistics	96
Wages	247
Waste Land Reclamation Act ...	198
Water Transport	183
Waterways Division ...	168
Weights and Measures ...	78
Wheat	62
Wheeler, Sir Henry ...	82
Whistler, Hugh	16
Wilson, J. A.	15
Wilson, Mindon	155
Worsley, C. F.	132, 156
Youth Welfare Activities ...	91
Zamindars	31, 44, 45—47
Zerpesgi tenures	191, 258
Zirat lands	47-48, 56, 158, 258

BSP. (Rev.) 8—Lino—2,000—17-4-1958—MOM & others.

Figure of Lord Buddha near Ashoka Pillar at Kolhua

[Plate no. 1]

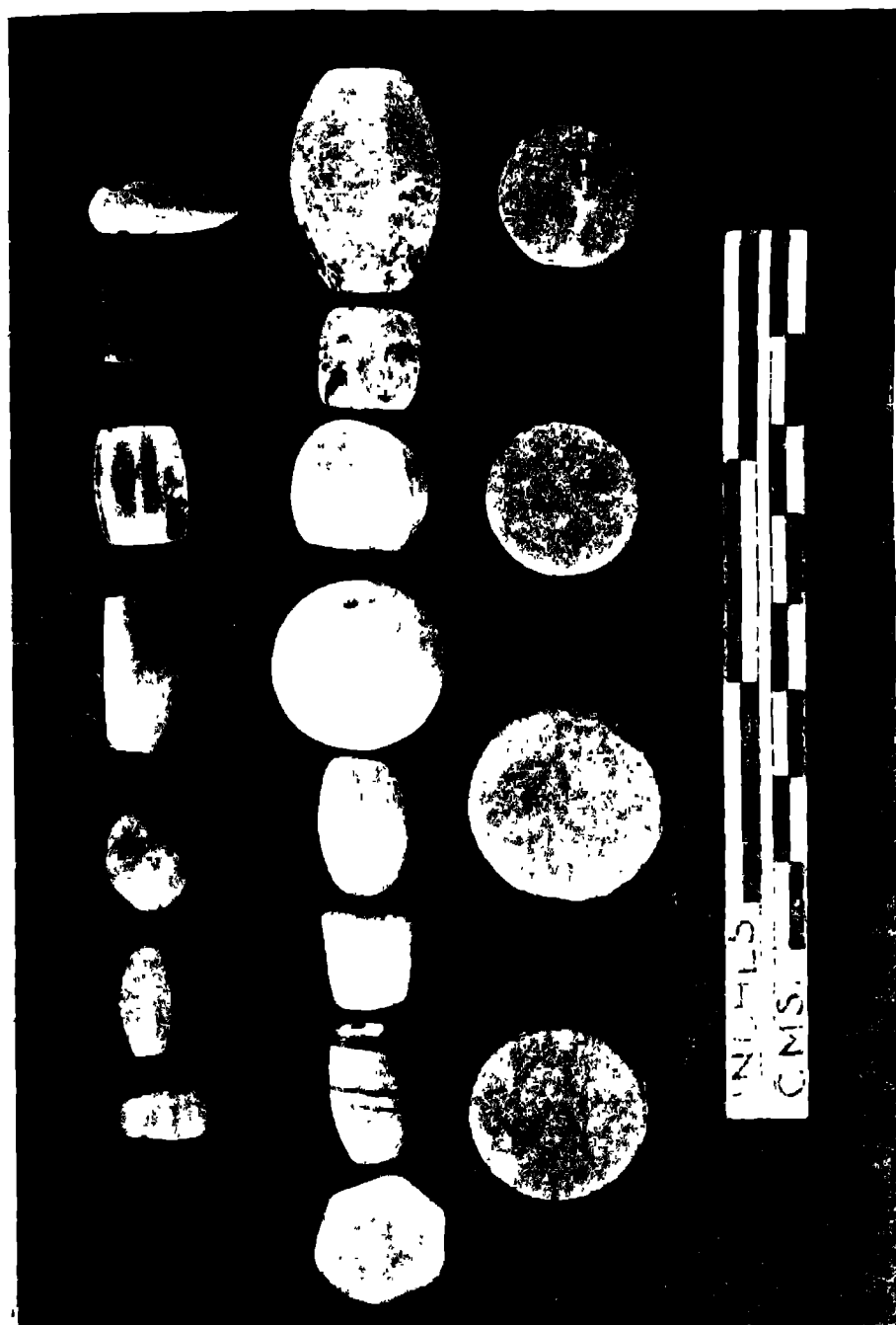
Ashoka Pillar at Kolhua.

[Plate no. 2.]

Terracotta figure from Vaisali.

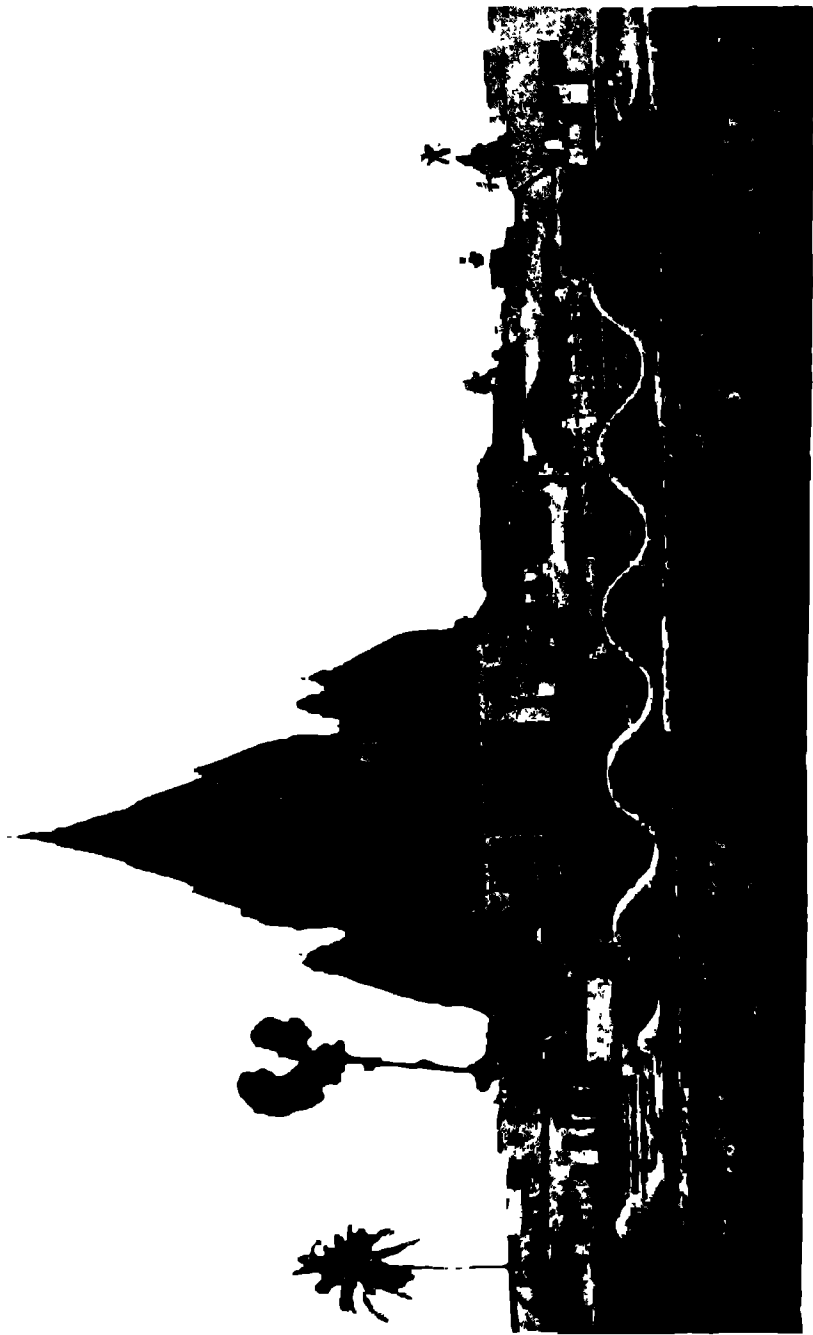
[Plate no. 3.]

Ivory and Bone objects from the excavation at Vaisali.

[Plate no. 5.1]

Various kinds of beads and weights from the excavation at Vaisali.

[Plate no. 5]

Newly constructed bridge of Akhara Ghat on Burhi Gandak on Muzaffarpur-Sitamarhi Road.

[Plate no. 6.]

Shaojee's temple at Muzaffarpur.

[Plate nc. 7.]